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SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

JOURNAL

OF

PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES

OF THE

SIXTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING

HELD JOINTLY WITH

THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND PREPARATORY
SCHOOLS OF THE SOUTHERN STATES

AT

NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE

NOVEMBER 22, 23, 24, 1905

1905

PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION

FOR SALE BY THE SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATION

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SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL REVIEW
CHATTANOOGA, TENN.

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CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS

OF THE SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

PREAMBLE.

To promote the interests of popular education in the Southern States, by elevating the teaching profession, and securing to all the children the benefits of an efficient public school, the Southern Educational Association adopts the following:

CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE I—NAME

This Association shall be known as the Southern Educational Association.

ARTICLE II—MEMBERSHIP

Teachers and friends of education may become members of this Association, entitled to all its rights and privileges, upon the payment of the annual membership fee of two dollars.

ARTICLE III—OFFICERS

Sec. 1. The officers of the Association shall be a President, three Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, a Board of Directors, and an Executive Committee, all of whom shall hold office for a term of one year, or until their successors are elected, except as hereinafter provided.

Sec. 2. The President, Vice-President, Secretary, Treasurer, and Board of Directors shall be chosen by the members of the Association, by ballot, unless otherwise ordered, at the morning session of the last day of the annual meeting.

Sec. 3. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform such other duties as usually devolve upon a presiding officer. In case of his absence or disability, the Vice-Presidents, in order, shall preside, and in the absence of the President and all the Vice-Presidents, a chairman *pro tempore* may be elected.

Sec. 4. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate report of the proceedings of the Association and of all meetings of the Board of Directors, and shall conduct such correspondence as the Board of Directors or the Executive Committee may assign.

Sec. 5. The Treasurer shall receive and hold in safe keeping all the funds of the Association, and shall expend the same only upon the order of the Board of Directors. He shall keep an exact account of all receipts and expenditures, preserve all vouchers, and make a full report to the

Board of Directors on the first day of the annual meeting, which report shall be audited by a committee appointed by the said Board of Directors and submitted to the Association for approval.

Sec. 6. The Board of Directors shall consist of all past presidents of the Association who may be living, and of all future presidents immediately upon their election, who shall be enrolled as life directors, together with one member from each state represented, to be elected by the Association for a term of one year.

Sec. 7. It shall be the duty of the Board of Directors to determine the time and place of meeting, to make all the necessary arrangements for the meetings of the Association and of its departments, to order all expenditures of money, to provide for the general programs, to fill all vacancies in department offices, and to have in charge the general interests of the Association.

Sec. 8. The Executive Committee of the Board of Directors shall consist of the President, first Vice-President, Secretary, and Treasurer, who shall be *ex officio* members of said Board. It shall be the duty of the Committee to carry into effect the determinations of the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE IV—MEETINGS

Sec. 1. The annual meeting of the Association shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors.

Sec. 2. Special meetings of the Association may be called by the President at the request of six members of the Board of Directors.

Sec. 3. The Board of Directors shall hold its regular meetings at the place and during the time of the annual meeting of the Association.

Sec. 4. Special meetings of the Board of Directors may be held at such other times and places as the Board or the President may determine.

Sec. 5. Each new Board of Directors shall organize prior to the adjournment of the meeting at which it is created. At this meeting it shall appoint a committee on publication, consisting of the President and Secretary of the Association for the previous year, and one member from each department.

ARTICLE V—DEPARTMENTS

Sec. 1. The Departments of the Association shall be such as may be regularly admitted by the Board of Directors.

Sec. 2. Each Department shall have a President and a Secretary, and such other officers as may be desired, provided that all officers shall be members of the Association.

Sec. 3. Each Department may adopt such rules and regulations as shall not be in conflict with the Constitution and By-Laws of the Association.

ARTICLE VI—BY-LAWS

By-Laws not in conflict with this Constitution may be adopted at any regular meeting by a two-thirds vote of the members present.

ARTICLE VII—AMENDMENTS

This Constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting by the unanimous vote of the members present; or by a two-thirds vote of the members present; provided that the alteration or amendment shall have been substantially proposed in writing at a previous annual meeting of the Association.

BY-LAWS

1. The following committees shall be appointed by the President: A Committee on Resolutions, a Committee on Necrology, and a Committee on Nominations, each consisting of seven members.
2. No paper, lecture or address shall be read before the Association in the absence of its author, nor shall such paper, lecture or address be published in the proceedings without the unanimous approval of the Board of Directors.
3. All papers presented at the annual meeting shall be the property of the Association, and copies of the same must be placed in the hands of the Secretary before the close of the annual meeting, in order to insure their publication in the volume of proceedings.
4. The Constitution and By-Laws shall be published with the Proceedings of each annual meeting.

NOTE:—This constitution and by-laws were unanimously adopted at the Jacksonville meeting, December 30, 1904.

CALENDAR OF MEETINGS

SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

Place.	President.	Date.
I. Morehead City } -----	J. H. Shinn }	
Montgomery-- } -----	S. Palmer .. }	July, 1890
II. Lookout Mountain-----	J. H. Shinn -----	July, 1891
III. Atlanta-----	S. Palmer -----	July, 1892
IV. Louisville-----	W. F. Slaton -----	July, 1893
V. Galveston-----	W. H. Bartholomew -----	Dec., 1894
VI. Hot Springs-----	J. R. Preston-----	Dec., 1895
VII. Mobile-----	J. H. Phillips -----	Dec., 1896
VIII. New Orleans-----	Geo. J. Ramsey-----	Dec., 1898
IX. Memphis-----	Junius Jordon-----	Dec., 1899
X. Richmond-----	R. B. Fulton-----	Dec., 1900
XI. Columbia-----	G. R. Glenn-----	Dec., 1901
XII. Chattanooga-----	W. N. Sheats-----	July, 1902
XIII. Asheville-----	J. W. Nicholson-----	June-July, 1903
XIV. Atlanta-----	F. P. Venable-----	Dec., 1903-Jan., 1904
XV. Jacksonville-----	W. B. Hill-----	Dec., 1904
XVI. Nashville-----	C. D. McIver-----	Nov., 1905

There was no meeting of the Association in 1897, because of yellow fever at New Orleans, which city had been selected as the place of meeting.

SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

OFFICERS FOR 1904-1905.

SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

President—Charles D. McIver, President State Normal College, Greensboro,

N. C.

First Vice-President—John W. Abercrombie, President University of Alabama.

Second Vice-President—Lawton B. Evans, Superintendent Public Schools, Augusta, Ga.

Third Vice-President—James A. B. Sherer, President Newberry College, Newberry, S. C.

Treasurer—E. P. Burns, Member Board of Education, Atlanta, Ga.

Secretary—R. J. Tighe, Superintendent City Schools, Asheville, N. C.

ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND PREPARATORY SCHOOLS OF THE SOUTHERN STATES.

President—Brown Ayres, President University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.

Vice-President—E. A. Alderman, President University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Va.

Vice-President—Julius T. Wright, Principal University School, Mobile, Ala.

Secretary and Treasurer—J. H. Kirkland, Chancellor Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.

DEPARTMENTS.

SUPERINTENDENCE.

President—Supt. J. H. Van Sickle, Baltimore, Md.

Vice-President—Supt. Lawton B. Evans, Augusta, Ga.

Secretary—Supt. Allen J. Barwick, Thomasville, Ga.

CHILD STUDY.

President—Lawton B. Evans.

Vice-President—Miss Clem Hampton.

Secretary—Mrs. J. H. Phillips.

Director—Prof. H. E. Bierly.

INDUSTRIAL AND MANUAL ARTS.

President—Dr. J. W. Johnson, University of Mississippi.

Secretary—Prof. E. P. Ensminger, Rollins College, Fla.

NORMAL INSTRUCTION.

President—Prof. T. J. Woofter, Athens, Ga.

Vice-President—Miss Agnes Morris, Natchitoches, La.

Secretary—Prof. Chas. E. Little, Nashville, Tenn.

ADMINISTRATION.

President—E. P. Burns, Member Board of Education, Atlanta, Ga.

STATE DIRECTORS.

Maryland	HON. M. BATES STEVENS	Annapolis
Virginia	HARRIS HART	Roanoke
West Virginia	D. B. PURINTON	Morgantown
North Carolina	MISS EDITH ROYSTER	Raleigh
South Carolina	J. W. GAINES	Hartsville
Georgia	L. M. LANDRUM	Atlanta
Florida	MISS CLEM HAMPTON	Tallahassee
Alabama	C. W. DAUGETTE	Jacksonville
Mississippi	R. B. FULTON	University
Tennessee	PROF. H. E. BIERLY	Chattanooga
Kentucky	PROF. J. M. GUILLIAMS	Bowling Green
Arkansas	HON. JOHN H. HINEMON	Little Rock

COMMITTEES OF ARRANGEMENT.

Executive—Dr. Ira Landrith, Chairman; Frederick W. Moore, Secretary; S. A. Mynders, A. P. Bourland, H. C. Weber, J. J. Keyes, C. L. Hayes, C. E. Little, J. W. Brister, P. B. Jones.

Entertainment—H. C. Weber, Chairman; Mrs. E. G. Buford, Miss Ida E. Hood, Miss Susan L. Herron, Mrs. Cynta W. Rust, Prof. A. G. Bowen, Prof. S. M. D. Clark, Wm. Anderson, Dr. E. E. Severy, Prof. C. B. Wallace, Prof. J. D. Blanton, Mrs. J. V. Armstrong, Dean Wickliffe Rose, Miss Jeannette M. King, Miss Lizzie Bloomstein, Dr. W. L. Dudley, Claude J. Bell, J. J. Keyes, R. W. Jones, R. B. Roach, A. J. Cavert, D. J. Johns, W. R. Manlove, J. H. Patterson, W. C. Anderson, E. S. Brugh, E. L. Roberts, B. F. Drake, J. L. Wright, Mrs. C. L. Fraley, Miss Mary Lou Goodwin, Miss Minna Wise, Mrs. Zadie Givens, Miss Manie Hatton, Miss Susie Finegan, Miss Prudence Polk, Miss Teresa McKeon, Miss Miriam Elliott, Miss Mary Considine, Miss Sara Robinson, Miss Elizabeth Oehmig, David Lipscomb, Jr., Mrs. J. H. Kirkland, Mrs. J. D. Blanton, Mrs. Wickliffe Rose, Miss Agnes Smith, Miss Jennie Waggoner, Miss Dora Bloomstein, Miss Mamie Spence, Miss Ethel Northern, Miss Helen Wise, I. H. Gibson, Prof. J. E. Bailey, Prof. A. C. Webb, D. Moore Andrews.

Membership—Chas. E. Little, Chairman; Allen G. Hall, Secretary; A. P.

Bourland, C. B. Wallace, Isidore Lewinthal, F. K. Henderson, W. W. Berry, G. M. Neely.

Press and Program—Frederick W. Moore, Chairman; Charles E. Little, T. E. Sanders, A. G. Bowen, Rutledge Smith, Henry F. Beaumont, Eugene Eby, Thornwell Jacobs, R. S. Chesnutt, Jr., R. H. Yancey.

Information—C. L. Hayes, Chairman; A. J. Smith, Secretary; Miss Mary Arthur, Miss Emma Brown, Miss Izzie Hayes, Mrs. Thomas E. Sanders, Miss Lloyd, Miss Hattie Staley, Miss Helen Wise, Phillip Duke, Duncan Brown, Kinard Ragon, Ruperto Cisco.

Finance—P. B. Jones, Chairman; C. G. Burkitt, Secretary; R. E. Donnell, Treasurer; J. W. Brister, Watkins Crockett, Prof. H. Z. Kip.

Halls and Ushers—Prof. J. J. Keyes, Chairman; Prof. Campbell Bonner, Prof. J. W. Brister.

Points of Interest—Prof. J. W. Brister, Chairman; Prof. A. T. Barrett, Prof. R. N. Thompson.

Associate—Miss Manie Hatton, Chairman; Mrs. C. L. Fraley, J. H. Patterson, R. B. Roach, Miss Mary Considine, Miss Prudence Polk, Miss Susie Finegan, Miss Elizabeth Oehmig, Miss Miriam Elliott.

TREASURER'S REPORT

OF THE

SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

To the Board of Directors, Southern Educational Association.

GENTLEMEN—I respectfully submit the following report of the Treasurer, covering the meeting at Jacksonville, Fla.—December 31, 1904, January 1 and 2, 1905—and up to the opening of the Nashville meeting:

RECEIPTS.

Balance on hand December 31, 1904.....	\$497.41
Receipts at Jacksonville meeting.....	766.00
Receipts by Secretary, cash sales, per report.....	128.48
Receipts by Secretary, cash sales, per report.....	14.00
	<hr/>
	\$1,405.89

DISBURSEMENTS.

Expenses Jacksonville meeting—	
Invited speaker, P. W. Meldrim.....	\$ 25.00
Invited speaker, C. B. Aycock.....	50.00
Invited speaker, Dr. Fulton (telegram).....	5.00
Amount paid to Florida Teachers' Association.....	50.00
Expenses of Officers—	
President W. B. Hill	15.00
Vice-President F. P. Venable.....	39.00
Secretary R. J. Tighe.....	80.00
Treasurer E. P. Burns	26.50
Special honorarium to Ex-Gov. C. B. Aycock	50.00
Expenses of Secretary—	
Advertising and correspondence	33.17
Distribution of Proceedings, etc	189.53
Publication of Proceedings.....	266.15
Printing, Local Committee, Jacksonville	17.63
Office expense, Secretary Tighe.....	26.33
	<hr/>
	\$ 873.31
Balance on hand November 22, 1905.....	532.58
	<hr/>
	\$1,405.89

E. P. BURNS.
Treasurer.

JOINT MEETING
SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION
(SIXTEENTH ANNUAL SESSION)
AND THE
ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND PREPARATORY
SCHOOLS
OF
THE SOUTHERN STATES
(ELEVENTH ANNUAL SESSION)
HELD AT
NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE,
FIRST CUMBERLAND PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH,
WEDNESDAY, Nov. 22, 1905.

FIRST DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

Carnegie Library, Wednesday, November 22, 1905, 8 p.m.

The meeting was called to order a few minutes after 8 o'clock, p. m., by Rev. Dr. Ira Landrith.

Dr. Landrith: As the nominal chairman of the local committee that has had the honor to prepare for the coming of this joint meeting of these two great educational associations it is my duty to call this meeting to order. Will you kindly stand while you are led in prayer by the pastor of this church, the Rev. Dr. Trinnin.

PRAYER.

Almighty God, we thank Thee for that providential care and direction that has preserved the lives of so many men and women interested in the great work of teaching in our Southland, and bringing them together tonight to confer in reference to the work that has been committed unto them. We thank Thee, our Father, for the great interest, the growing interest in educational questions in the South; we thank Thee that so many are interested, so many are conferring together and laboring together for the best methods and the best ways of teaching and training our youth. We pray, our Father, that their conferences here may be a wonderful help and inspiration to their participation. We thank Thee for the privilege of entertaining them, this honorable body of women and men, of meeting with them and having fellowship together, and we pray Thee, our Father, that their deliberations may be such as Thou canst smile upon, and that the meeting may be for Thy glory, in the advancement of all educational interests represented here. The Lord's blessing be upon them and their work, and may their teachings and

trainings not only be the teaching and training of the head, but of the heart, that both may work together for the highest culture and the bringing out of the noblest character.

Again we ask, dear Lord, Thy blessings and benediction upon all the meetings and upon every conference, upon all the committees, the presiding officers, and glorify Thyself through these, Thy servants, in Christ Jesus, our Lord. Amen.

Dr. Landrith: I am very sure that every intelligent citizen of Nashville recognizes the coming of these two great associations as an honor, but Nashville enjoys the distinction of having had, in a very delightful way, this honor thrust upon it and at a somewhat late hour. We were glad to undertake the work of preparing for the meeting of these associations, and in the short while we have had, we have done our best. The work that has been done in this brief period will show for itself during these three days.

I think we ought to begin at the beginning, and before the program is taken up everybody in this audience should be given the opportunity to become a member of the Southern Educational Association so that the rest of the meeting may be yours and not merely a meeting which you witness. I shall therefore ask that the young gentlemen who have been furnished with membership slips shall immediately pass through the audience and place in the hands of everyone of you one of these slips, which you may immediately fill out, and at the conclusion of the meeting take with you to the registrar's desk in the rear of the church, along with the two dollars which makes that application available. Let the ushers at once wait upon the audience, while I make some other announcements that are necessary. It is suggested that you can pay later than tonight. But the best time to pay will be tonight.

Tomorrow afternoon at 1:30 o'clock—and please let our friends and visitors note this—tomorrow afternoon at 1:30 o'clock, by the courtesy of the street car company a trolley ride will be tendered you to visit points of interest in the city. The cars will leave promptly at 1:30 o'clock from the Fogg High School on the corner of Broad and Spruce streets. The only requirement as to fare is that you shall wear a badge as a member of the Association and that will cost you only two dollars. It carries with it, however, a great many other privileges which are worth many times two dollars, and the street car fare will, therefore, be a little more than free.

I want to call attention to this magnificent program which you hold in your hand for two reasons. In the first place, it

is the free gift of the Brandon Printing Company of this city. All of the work upon it, except the actual preparation of the matter, has been done by the Brandon Printing Company, and wholly without charge to the local committee or any other committee, and I do not hesitate to say that as an exhibition of beautiful printing, I have not seen it excelled. But the special reason for mentioning it is that it very materially changes the previously printed program which probably went to your homes, in this one particular, that the meeting places are not as they were in the first program, and you will have to depend upon the Nashville edition, the latest publication, and the one you hold in your hands. Tomorrow's meeting will be held in accordance with the announcements which appear in this program.

Let me make this additional announcement in reference to membership. Everybody is entitled to membership in the Southern Educational Association. Local persons, friends of education, by joining the Association tonight become, to that extent, patrons of education as represented by the Association, to further the ends of the movement which is to make education available and acceptable to Southern children, and your contribution will not only come back to you in the many ways which applies to the members of the Association, and you will not only receive a free copy of the proceedings of this convention and enjoy all the privileges of this meeting but you will be thereby helping the cause of education, which is having its new birth in our blessed New Southland.

At No. 709 McGavock street those of you who did not get rooms, may find, between now and nine o'clock tonight, the chairman of the committee that is looking after this particular matter, and that leads me to remark that having done the best we could, in every other particular, we deeply regret our inability to provide in the best hotels of our city, all the rooms you might possibly have desired. Abundant room has been obtained in private homes and the best boarding houses, but for reasons which are locally pretty well known most of the rooms in our hotels have been engaged for several days. However, I have the authority of the Tennessee Legislature for saying to you, gentlemen, that it will not occur again. (Laughter and applause.)

An address of welcome on behalf of the City of Nashville and the State of Tennessee will now be delivered by the Hon.

Rutledge Smith, who represents the Governor, who is absent unavoidably, on official business.

Mr. Smith then addressed the meeting.

Dr. Landrith: On behalf of the numerous educational institutions of Tennessee to which his assistant has referred, an address of welcome will now be delivered by Superintendent Mynders, of whom I may say, in a single word, he has been one officer certainly, who has been Superintendent of Education in Tennessee.

Supt. Mynders addressed the Associations.

Dr. Landrith: It will be noted that this is the first joint meeting of the Southern Educational Association whose sixteenth annual session this is, and the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States, which is holding its eleventh annual session. The presidents of these two organizations will now take charge of this meeting, the local committee having discharged as fully as it could up to this point, its duty, and being ready now in the most cordial possible way to meet your wish in every way during these days, if it can. I refer you to the two pages of names which are printed here, and you are at liberty to call on any one of us for anything we can do, from carrying your grip to carrying your burdens, of whatever other kind they may be.

I have very great pleasure in introducing—not to these Associations who know him so well—but to the citizens of Nashville who are represented here on this prayer meeting evening which has called so many of our people away who would like to be here, President McIver of the State Normal College of Greensboro, N. C., President of the Southern Educational Association.

At this point in the program President McIver took charge of the meeting.

President McIver: I now have the pleasure of introducing to you President Ayers, President of the University of Tennessee at Knoxville, President of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States.

President McIver then delivered the president's annual address, at the close of which he was followed by President Ayres, who delivered the annual address to the Association of Colleges. The title of President Ayres' address was "The Place of the

Agricultural and Mechanical College in the Educational Scheme of the South."

Secretary R. J. Tighe announced that there were a limited number of copies of the proceedings of the last six meetings of the Association which could be had by applying to him and paying the price of two dollars per volume.

The meeting thereupon adjourned to meet tomorrow morning according to program.

SECOND DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

Carnegie Library, Thursday, November 23, 1905, 9 a.m.

Meeting called to order by President McIver, who announced that the first topic on the program was, "The Functions and Relations of State Universities," by President D. B. Purinton, University of West Virginia, Morgantown, W. Va.

President Purinton then read his paper.

President McIver: The other topic for discussion this morning, "Educational Progress in the Southern States During the Past Year," by the various State Superintendents of Education will not detain us as long as the length of the program would indicate. In the first place, these state superintendents who have been asked to come before us and give us an account of their work have been requested to limit their papers to ten minutes. And I wish to state in advance that the object of this program was to have a brief statement from every Southern State of the progress during the past year, and knowing the length of the list of names that would appear, the request was made that no paper should be given more than ten minutes. And in justice to those who come last, as well as in justice to the audience, I shall without any hesitation inform each person when he has been on the floor ten minutes.

I will say also that six of those who are on the program are unavoidably detained, so that the program will not be so long as it appears to be. I say this, for I would like very much for this fine representative gathering of educators to listen patiently, and I am sure you will listen with pleasure if you do listen at all to the papers presented by these chosen educational leaders of the Southern States. It is worth the trip here to see them and meet them and to know the men

that the Southern educators have chosen for the great battles in their respective states.

Now, the first is Mr. Isaac W. Hill of Montgomery, Alabama, but he has requested that Mr. H. C. Gunnells, the chief clerk of the Department of Education and identified with every educational work in Alabama, should present the report for Alabama, and I have the pleasure now of introducing to you Mr. H. C. Gunnells of Alabama.

Supt. Gunnells made his report.

The President next introduced Supt. John H. Hinemon of Arkansas, who made his report.

President McIver: The next state is Florida, but the State Superintendent of Florida is necessarily detained by important engagements which he could not possibly leave.

A Member: I believe that nothing can be printed unless by order of the Board of Directors, unless the person is here to read his paper. I am very much interested in Florida, and I want to see Florida's report in the next annual report of this body, and I move that we give Supt. W. M. Holloway permission to have his report printed, as he is unavoidably away, and Florida should be in the report of the proceedings.

President McIver: May I make a suggestion? It is the purpose of the Executive Committee to suspend that rule in regard to all these superintendents who are absent, not in regard to other papers or addresses, but as we are inaugurating this little scheme of having a brief report from every state, we want to make it complete, and we want to ask the state superintendents who have prepared the reports and who were suddenly kept away to send them in, and I suggest that you include all of them in your motion.

Mr. Hill of Alabama: I rise to make the point of order that it is a matter for the Board of Directors to consider, as provided by Section 2 of the By-Laws.

President McIver: That is correct. We are obliged to forego the pleasure of hearing from Florida, but I think I can say to you that it will be in the printed report. Now we will hear from the great State of Georgia, through Hon. W. B. Merritt of Atlanta.

Supt. Merritt reported.

President McIver next introduced Supt. J. H. Fuqua of Kentucky, who made his report.

President McIver: I regret that the Hon. James B. Aswell of Baton Rouge, La., within the past few days has been obliged to cancel his engagement to be here, on account of an important called meeting of the State Board of Education which was so urgent that he could not be with us today.

So, next we will hear from Maryland, which will be represented by Hon. M. Bates Stephens.

Supt. Stephens reported.

The following superintendents were next introduced and read reports:

Mississippi, H. L. Whitfield.

Tennessee, S. A. Mynders.

South Carolina, O. B. Martin.

President McIver: I have a letter from Supt. J. Y. Joyner of Raleigh, N. C., saying that it is impossible for him to be present, as he had made an important engagement before the date of this meeting had been fixed, so we will not have the pleasure of hearing him at this time.

I also have a letter from Supt. Cousins of Texas, stating that he is unavoidably absent, and sending us greetings.

The State of Virginia is unfortunately in a transition state as far as the state superintendent is concerned, and unfortunately for this occasion we could get neither the old superintendent nor the new one, who has just been elected about a week or two ago. We wanted to have a report from Virginia, and I am satisfied we can get a report from Mr. Eggleston after he goes in, even on the past year's work there.

The only other report on the program is that of the Superintendent of West Virginia. I feel very much gratified that of the four states in the Union that have recognized the principle that the public ought to take a hand and say that a hundred or a hundred and fifty dollar teacher should not be allowed to teach —I say, out of the four states that have been wise enough to take that step there are two southern states who are represented in this Association, and I am inclined to think the State of Maryland takes the best position. The only four states that have tackled this momentous question of salaries of teachers are, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Maryland and West Virginia. And

now we will hear from Supt. Thomas C. Miller of West Virginia.

Supt. Miller read his report.

President McIver: Now, we have gone through the program this morning and I think in a very reasonable time. There are a few announcements to be made.

Mr. John H. Hinemon: Before you leave the reports of state superintendents I would like to make a statement that would not properly have been a part of my report, but may be made here in justice to our people. In all our gatherings in the South, we hear a great deal said about local taxation. I want to say that has never been an issue in Arkansas. When the Constitution of Arkansas was adopted in 1874, provision was made for local taxation in every district of the state, and we have had local taxation all over the state. The agitation has not been a question of local taxation, but a question of increasing the local taxation, and I wanted to make that plain to the members present. That is, increasing it from five to seven mills limit.

The secretary read the announcements in reference to the meetings this afternoon and evening.

The president announced the membership of the various committees as follows:

Committee on Necrology—Prof. E. C. Branson, of Georgia; Dr. George J. Ramsey, of Kentucky; Prof. Morris Page, of Virginia; Supt. Thomas C. Miller, of West Virginia; Prof. Walter Miller, of Tulane University; Prof. J. N. Powers, of Mississippi, and Prof. S. H. Moore, of Texas.

Committee on Resolutions—Supt. J. H. Phillips, of Alabama; Supt. J. H. Van Sickle, of Maryland; Prof. Wickliffe Rose, of Tennessee; President G. R. Glenn, of the Georgia State University; Supt. J. H. Hinemon, of Arkansas; Supt. J. H. Fuqua, of Kentucky; and Supt. H. L. Whitfield, of Mississippi.

Committee on Nominations—Supt. O. B. Martin, of South Carolina; Supt. S. A. Mynders, of Tennessee; Supt. I. W. Hill, of Alabama; Miss Clem Hampton, of the Florida Department of Public Instruction; Supt. M. Bates Stephens, of Maryland; Prof. F. P. Venable, of North Carolina, and Prof. J. W. Johnson, of Mississippi.

The President called a meeting of the Board of Directors to meet at the close of this session.

Adjournment was then taken.

A street car ride was given to the members of the Association from 3 to 5 p.m.

A reception was given by the faculty of Peabody College at the College from 5 to 7 p.m. to the visiting members.

EVENING SESSION.

Grace Cumberland Presbyterian Church, corner Lindsley Avenue and Market Street, Thursday, November 23, 8 p.m.

The President:

Ladies and Gentlemen—Before the address of the evening is delivered there are two announcements that I wish to give the opportunity to be made, one by the Superintendent of City Schools of Louisville, Superintendent Marks. It is an educational announcement of special interest to the supervisors of schools.

Mr. E. H. Marks here announced that the next meeting of the Department of Superintendence for the National Educational Association will meet in Louisville, Ky., on the 28th and 29th of February and March 1, 1906, and extended a cordial invitation to the members of these associations to attend that meeting.

President McIver then introduced Dr. George J. Ramsey.

Dr. Ramsey announced that the Conference for Education in the South popularly known as the "Ogden Movement" has accepted an invitation to Lexington, Ky. to hold its next annual session in that city in April, or about that time, the exact time not having yet been determined. An invitation is extended these Associations to hold their annual meeting at the same time.

The President: The speaker of the evening is a new man in this Association and has recently come to the State of Missouri, and he is at the head of one of the greatest normal schools of America. I have the pleasure of introducing to you

President James E. Ament of the State Normal School of Missouri, at Warrensburg.

President James E. Ament then addressed the Association on "The Fourth Profession."

The President conveyed to the Association the invitation of the Medical Department of the University of Nashville to visit the classes and see them in their work, lectures, laboratories and quizzes.

The members were requested to convene promptly at the Carnegie Library tomorrow morning for the transaction of important business. An invitation was extended to those present to register and receive cards of membership in the Associations.

Thereupon the meeting adjourned.

THIRD DAY'S PROCEEDINGS.

Carnegie Library, Friday, November 24, 1905, 9 a. m.

President McIver: The Committee on Nominations not being now ready to report, that matter will be postponed until later.

I think that before beginning the program this morning, this will be a good time for the offering of any resolutions, so that they may be referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Mr. Rutledge Jones, of Memphis, offered a resolution on libraries, which was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

President McIver: On the program first this morning then we will have the address or paper of President E. C. Branson, of the Georgia State Normal School at Athens.

It is well for me to say in the beginning, as I did yesterday, that there is a limit to these papers and none of them are supposed to go beyond twenty minutes and time will be kept on them.

President Branson addressed the meeting on "Reality Education."

President McIver: As the committee is ready we will now have the report of the Committee on Nominations.

Chairman O. B. Martin: We beg leave to submit the following:

For President, J. W. Abercrombie, Montgomery, Ala.
First Vice President, S. A. Mynders, Nashville, Tenn.
Second Vice President, H. L. Smith, Davidson College, N.
C.
Third Vice President, J. W. Kuykendall, Fort Smith, Ark.
Secretary, R. J. Tighe, Asheville, N. C.
Treasurer, E. P. Burns, Atlanta, Ga.

President McIver: Unless there is some motion the voting will be by ballot on the adoption of the report of the Committee.

A Member: Would it be proper to instruct the secretary to cast the vote of the entire body for these officers? I suggest this simply to save time.

Motion seconded.

On motion being put before the house it was unanimously carried and the Secretary cast the entire vote of the members present for the officers nominated by the Committee, and they were declared unanimously elected to the respective offices therein set out.

President McIver: The next paper is "The County Superintendent and His Mission," by Supt. J. N. Powers of West Point, Miss.

Supt. Powers then addressed the Association.

President McIver: The next subject on the program is "Some City School Problems," and I have a telegram from Mr. Cook saying that owing to some illness he is not able to be present, but he wants me to say that he sends his regrets and best wishes to the Association. He had expected to be present until the last moment, when he found it impossible to be with us.

The next speaker is so well known to the Association because of his long and faithful service to it as well as by his faithful service in other educational causes throughout the South, that all I need say is that Prof. P. P. Claxton of the University of Tennessee at Knoxville, will now speak to you on "The Public High School."

Prof. Claxton now addressed the meeting.

President McIver: The next paper is "The Private High School," by Prof. W. R. Webb, of Bellbuckle, Tenn.

Prof. Webb then read a paper.

President McIver: We will next have "The Relation of the Southern College to the Public School," by Prof. S. M. Tucker of the State College for Women at Tallahassee, Fla.

Prof. Tucker addressed the meeting.

Discussion on the High School question now took place, led by Prof. Webb.

President McIver: We have now reached the hour for the special order, but I have some announcements I wish to make before beginning the discussion of the special order.

We will have tonight in the First Cumberland Presbyterian church, two of the best addresses that could appear on this or any other program and you will not think less of them and I will not make you think less of them, when I tell you that both addresses will be brief. If you will be there promptly at eight o'clock, I promise you that President Snyder will close his address at 8:30 and that Dr. Smith, President of Davidson College, will take no longer than that, and any of you that are planning to do so, can leave on the 9:30 train.

We will now take up the special order, the discussion of the time of future meetings.

Mr. Branson of Georgia: In order to bring this matter to a head and to dispose of it for the discussion of a question I think more important than the question of time of meeting, I move that this meeting occur next year during the third week of November. The mere time of this meeting is an unimportant matter, compared to the organization or reorganization of this body and related bodies so that they may go to work upon definite purposes, and I want the discussion this morning to be consumed for the most part in the consideration of the organization or reorganization of this Association into a live, compact, working machine, so that we may accomplish something.

Motion duly seconded.

President Ayers: I do not know that the question of date is a matter that is so vital to the Association of Colleges and Schools as the general distribution of time and working arrangements between the two Associations in case they should come together. I think, however, there is no difficulty in making such an arrangement as to enable the Association of Colleges and Schools to do its work most effectively, while meeting at the same place and having some joint meetings. The mat-

ter, however, is open for discussion, and there are members of the Association present who I think will take part in the discussion and express their views.

Mr. Claxton: I want to say that it has been eight years since I was first secretary of this Association, but I believe that Thanksgiving would be the best time for our meeting, or, just a week before Thanksgiving. But there is a question I wanted to suggest. There has been for a number of years, a meeting that all Southerners have wanted to attend, a meeting that after awhile will likely cease to exist, but with which we could most appropriately meet, and it would still give us all plenty of time for our business. That meeting is known as the Conference for Education in the South. Any meeting of that kind is only for a series of years, but inasmuch as the South is a very large country and it is not a matter of time, but of railroad fare, would not it be well if we could co-operate with that meeting for a series of years until it ceased to exist, and then absorb whatever enthusiasm it may leave.

Mr. Hayes: The discussion has suggested to my mind the advisability of making an amendment to Prof. Branson's motion, and that is this: We can not determine the time of these other meetings, but we can cordially invite all those others to meet with us and can appoint a special committee if necessary to solicit their meeting with us at the desired time. I therefore move that Prof. Branson's motion be amended by adding that we extend a cordial invitation to all kindred associations in the South to meet with us at this time, and that a committee of three be appointed to extend that invitation to all the others.

Mr. Branson: I don't understand the motion.

Mr. Hayes: The motion was, instead of the motion as made, that we meet at this time, instead of deciding that, and that the other associations meet at this time, that we invite them all to meet with us, and appoint a special committee for that purpose, or instruct the Executive Committee to that effect.

Mr. Claxton: I think it would be better to refer the whole matter to the Board of Directors. Contingencies might arise which would make it necessary to change the date of the meeting. Therefore, as a substitute for the amended motion I move that the entire matter be referred to the Board of Directors, with full power to act.

Motion duly seconded.

Mr. Branson: I accept that substitute, or accept anything, just so we can get this thing off our hands to get to something more important.

Motion to refer to Board of Directors, as above, being put by the President, was unanimously adopted.

President McIver: It is necessary for some consultation. As Prof. Ayers said, if we have this meeting very early in October it would conflict with other meetings. I want to say this, and I know the importance of it, because I had the responsibility of it before. It is very important, if we are going to meet in the month of November, that that be decided before we leave, so that the people may have a year's notice to get ready. I believe we ought to meet as suggested, and that we ought to meet on Friday and Saturday, so that the teachers, or at least the teachers in the state where we meet, for miles around even, could get there for Saturday, anyway. In other words, a week-end program with possibly some religious work on Sunday. But that, of course, will come under the direction of the Board of Directors.

Meeting thereupon adjourned.

EVENING SESSION.

*First Cumberland Presbyterian Church, Friday, November,
24, 1905, 8 p.m.*

Meeting called to order by President McIver.

President McIver: Ladies and Gentlemen—We now come to the closing exercises of the sessions, and we will listen to two of the foremost educators of the country, professional teachers who have risen to the head of important educational institutions in their respective states of North Carolina and South Carolina. All of us can remember the time when the head of an institution of this kind was either a politician or a preacher, and sometimes both in one. But we are reaching the time when school teachers are going to be the heads of educational institutions.

The first paper is "The Denominational College in Southern Education," by Henry N. Snyder, President of Wofford College, Spartanburg, S. C.

President Snyder addressed the meeting.

President McIver: The next speaker will address you on the subject of "A Plea for Some Old Ideals"—Mr. Henry Louis Smith, President of Davidson College, Davidson, N. C. When an old man speaks for youth and vigor, and a young man speaks for old ideals, then we have a happy blending. I have the pleasure of presenting to you Dr. Henry Louis Smith, President of Davidson College.

President Smith read a paper.

President McIver: Ladies and Gentlemen—It is not yet nine o'clock, and we wish to have the report, before we adjourn, of the Committee on Resolutions, and the Committee on Necrology, I believe, has asked for a continuance of that Committee, to report a year hence, as it is too big an undertaking to be hastily handled.

Superintendent Phillips of Alabama will now make the report for the Committee on Resolutions.

Mr. Phillips: Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen—I wish to say that only two resolutions have been handed in, and they were too late for the Committee to pass upon them and hence they will not be read in this report. Our report is as follows:

The Southern Educational Association assembled in its sixteenth annual session, reiterates its conviction, that the one paramount question today, essential to the material, civil and moral development of the States of the South, is that of popular education, and encouragement of the rapid development of public sentiment in the South with regard to this subject. It emphasizes its purpose to secure for all schools effective organization and economical administration in order that all the youth of our land shall enjoy the largest possible measure of educational opportunity, and to this end publishes the following declaration:

1. We recognize the integrity of all educational agencies and the necessity of purpose in all educational departments, from the Kindergarten to the University; we commend the establishment of kindergartens in cities and village communities and sympathize with the movement that seeks to incorporate the kindergarten as an organic part of our local school systems whenever possible; we endorse the establishment of the public high school and urge the recognition and encouragement of secondary education by legislative support, as a department of state education, co-ordinate with the elementary school and the college; we urge that the several departments of our educational system, in city, country and state, be so adjusted by concentration and correlation, as to prevent unnecessary waste by diffusion or dissipation, or by duplication of energy, courses of study and equipment.

2. We believe that the principle of local taxation for schools is just and equitable, and that the proportion of school funds so derived should be largely increased in every state, thus developing a higher degree of community responsibility, and a larger measure of efficiency in the schools of the people.

3. Believing that the duty of the State to establish and maintain schools for its educable youth, implies the co-ordinate right to render its provisions effective, we endorse such legislation in the several states as shall effectually restrict child labor, and secure the compulsory attendance at school of all educable youth under fourteen years of age.

4. We hail with pleasure the tendency towards greater economy and efficiency in school administration by the consolidation of schools, both urban and sectional, the demand for longer terms, better buildings and equipment and more efficient supervision.

5. While we endorse most heartily all agencies employed in the special preparation of teachers, and in the improvement of teachers already in the service, we urge insistence upon a grade of scholarship which shall at least be equivalent to that required for the completion of a good high school course, as a prerequisite to entrance upon a course of professional training.

6. We endorse the recommendation so ably presented by President McIver in his annual address, that this Association shall inaugurate a concerted movement in all the States of the South for the purpose of securing to the teachers of our common schools, both rural and urban, the payment of such salaries as shall be commensurate with their duties and responsibilities, and which will justify capable men and women to enter and to continue in, the profession of teaching.

7. We recognize the value of industrial and manual training as an element in the ideal of elementary and secondary education, and endorse the idea that the school shall fit the child to become an economic as well as a political and moral factor in the civilization into which he is born.

8. While we endorse physical culture and athletics in schools of all grades, we sincerely deplore the tendency in our high schools and colleges to lower the ideals of our educational institutions through the questionable practices and the intemperate enthusiasms of strenuous athletics. We urge upon our educational authorities the importance of preserving in all things educational a due sense of proportion, and a sane regard for the true ideals of academic and university life.

9. Believing the library to be an important and an essential factor in the educational development of a people, we urge that special attention be given to the upbuilding of school and college libraries, and to the establishment of public libraries in rural as well as urban communities throughout the South.

10. In order that the several educational organizations of the Southern States may become more effective, we cordially invite all such organizations to meet with the Southern Educational Association in its annual meetings in order that the strength of each may be supplemented by the united strength of all.

In conclusion, we tender the sincere thanks of this Association to the several officers who have labored so successfully to make our session now closing so profitable; our thanks and grateful acknowledgements are also due to the several local committees who have so carefully provided for the comfort and entertainment of the Association and to the citizens of Nashville for the generous hospitality extended to the membership of the Association.

J. H. PHILLIPS, Chairman.

President McIver: What will you do with the report?

Mr. Phillips: On behalf of the committee, I move the adoption of the report.

Motion duly seconded and unanimously carried.

President McIver: The only other matter to come before us is a report I had forgotten. The chairman of the committee

is away, but Chairman Venable has handed me the following report of the committee appointed to audit the accounts of the Treasurer, and I will read it:

To the President and Members of the Southern Educational Association:

The committee appointed to audit the accounts of the Treasurer of the Southern Educational Association beg to report that they have examined the accounts and vouchers of the Treasurer, Mr. E. P. Burns, and find them correct. A balance of \$532.58 remains in the Treasurer's hands.

Respectfully,

J. M. GUILLIAMS,
JOHN H. HINEMON,
F. P. VENABLE.

Committee.

On motion duly made the report of the committee was adopted.

President McIver: I wish to say before adjournment that this is the beginning of a broader and a greater day for this Association, and as I said in my opening address, I believe Nashville will be eventually glad we came, because of that fact, for we will grow into a much greater organization in the future, and I am certain if it grows larger, or if it does not grow larger, we will be glad to come to this city again. I do not know where we could go where we would be treated more hospitably and more happily entertained than here. It remains for this Association to carry the correct report and the correct spirit of the Association and its purposes, to those members of the profession who have recently joined, or who have not been with us at this time. I am sorry your new President is not able to be here. He has, as Vice-President, in my absence, had a great deal to do with the preparing of this program, and I am glad that he will have charge of the meeting next year. Wherever you go, you may expect equally as strong a program and as faithfully carried out as this has been, and I think in many ways improved. We have thought of many improvements that could be made, some we had planned at this time but could not carry out because of exigencies.

I hope by uniting all the organizations that are engaged in educational service in the Southern States, and not scattering our work, that we may come together and make a great impression in the year to come, for the cause that is so dear to us.

And in conclusion I beg that all that can do so will make suggestions to any of those in authority in managing the Associa-

tion, in regard to the subject which I called to your attention at the opening meeting. That every county superintendent, every state superintendent, every city superintendent, every college man, every teacher, will insist at all times that we ought not pay larger salaries to cotton pickers, tobacco strippers, and street cleaners, than we are paying to those who are rearing our little children.

Let us remember that we can not have good teaching by multiplying schools and weak teachers. In mathematics, two halves make a whole, while two half-teachers do not make a whole teacher. We had better have some consolidation and some system.

I appreciate very much the courtesies shown to the chair. I appreciate particularly those superintendents who came here and who were accustomed to presiding over an entire state delegation, and speaking an entire day, perhaps, and I appreciate their coming here and boiling it down to ten minutes and letting us have ten speeches in less than an hour and a half. If we will make this annual inventory and then have our other meetings as we have had them here we will grow stronger and more useful.

As there is nothing further, the meeting will stand adjourned.

MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF THE BOARD OF
DIRECTORS, 1904-05.

Carnegie Library, Nashville, Tenn., November 23, 1905, 12 m.

Present: Charles D. McIver, J. M. Guilliams, J. H. Phillips, D. B. Purinton, J. H. Hinemon.

President McIver presided.

The meeting was called to audit the accounts of the Treasurer.

On motion it was provided that the President should appoint a committee of three to audit the Treasurer's books and report before adjournment. Carried.

President McIver appointed the following committee: J. M. Guilliams, J. H. Hinemon, F. P. Venable.

Adjourned.

R. J. TIGHE, Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE ANNUAL MEETING OF THE
NEW BOARD OF DIRECTORS, 1905-06.

Carnegie Library, November 24, 1905, 12 m.

The following were present: Charles D. McIver, John W. Abercrombie, E. P. Burns, Geo. J. Ramsey, J. H. Phillips, F. P. Venable, John H. Hinemon, W. H. Davis, D. B. Purinton, Z. V. Judd, Frank Evans, Miss Clem Hampton, J. N. Powers, P. P. Claxton, and R. J. Tighe, Secretary.

The following were absent: M. Bates Stephens, Joseph S. Stewart, H. C. Gunnells, J. H. Fuqua, S. H. Moore, A. M. Herget, Jas. E. Ament and S. A. Mynders.

President Abercrombie presided.

On Mr. Ramsey's motion it was decided to leave the selection of the time and place of the next meeting to the Executive Committee.

Mr. Ramsey moved that the secretary of each of the departments be added to the Committee on Publication. Carried.

Mr. Hinemon moved to have a statement of educational progress from each of the absent state superintendents published in the proceedings. Carried.

Dr. McIver opened a discussion for means of increasing the membership in the future. He favored paying the expenses of good musicians to the meetings in order that the program might be made more attractive.

President Abercrombie asked for suggestions from other members.

Mr. Burns stated that he had enrolled thus far 104 members from outside of Nashville and this number represented fifteen states. In discussing the relative merits of the certificate and coupon plans he favored the former.

There was some further discussion on this matter by Messrs. Ramsey, Hinemon, Davis and Tighe.

Mr. Davis suggested correlation with state organizations and the plan of having delegates elected from each state to attend, thus making the Association more of a representative body. Messrs. Claxton, Hinemon and Phillips discussed this idea further. No action taken.

Superintendent Phillips expressed the belief that the best plan was to affiliate with other live associations, like the Association of Colleges, Southern Library Association, etc. There should be one great organization consolidated from the numerous small weak ones that are now trying hard to exist.

President Venable said one objection to this plan for the Association of Colleges was that frequently it seemed advisable for it to hold its meetings in places too small to accommodate the Southern Educational Association.

President Abercrombie stated that the Board would now consider invitations from cities desiring the next meeting. None were offered.

On motion the meeting adjourned.

R. J. TIGHE, Secretary.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

HON. RUTLEDGE SMITH.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:

By reason of the enforced absence from the city of our distinguished Governor, in whom we have the best friend of education in Tennessee, he bids me speak to you upon this occasion.

With great pleasure we welcome the representatives of these splendid organizations to the home of education, refinement and culture. It is very fitting indeed that you should hold the sessions of this Association under such conditions and surroundings as greet you in Nashville and in Tennessee. No state in the South can boast of so many universities, colleges, and high institutions of learning as does the Volunteer State. Here in this state, in this territory of fruitful and prolific fields, that produce profitably every crop and fruit that is grown in the entire union, with the single exception of the orange of Florida, our matchless resources are diversified. We could build a wall around Tennessee and produce everything that is necessary to the comfort, happiness and civilization of our people. Here the air is the purest, the dewdrops are more brilliant and the songs of the birds are sweeter than those of any land. But we do not choose to thus rock-ribbed encompass ourselves, but rather to keep open house in order that our friends may come hither and enjoy our hospitality and prosperity. Nature has been lavish to Tennessee, and we have not been unmindful of our opportunities. With our strong and sturdy manhood, and with the examples of our illustrious forefathers, we have builded wisely and well, and be it said to our credit that we can today boast of an educational and industrial development excelled by no state in this union. With joy and glad hearts do we welcome you to the proud old Volunteer State, and we bid you enter most heartily into the spirit of our boundless hospitality. (Applause.)

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

HON. S. A. MYNDERS, Superintendent of Public Instruction,
Tennessee.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen of the Southern Educational Association and Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States:

I am indeed glad to represent the school interests of Tennessee in welcoming you to our midst. We esteem ourselves fortunate that this joint meeting of these two great bodies should be held in Nashville. We esteem ourselves indeed happy that we have as our guests so many of the leaders in the solution of the greatest problem that confronts the people of the Southern States today. We anticipate, in your counsel and advice, many valuable suggestions that will help us in the state of Tennessee in solving the problem that is mutual.

In the development of any people there are three great necessary factors: First, the natural wealth of the country—Nature and God have endowed the South with all of these. We have everything that is necessary for the commercial and industrial development of a great people. We are blessed with everything beneath the ground and above that Providence could provide for a great nation. Next, the natural ability of a people. There are no people in the world that surpass the people of the Southern States in native ability. Here is the purest strain of Anglo-Saxon blood; here is the best element of foreign immigration located in the Southern States, and forming the population of this great part of the government of our country. These two elements are here: Nature on the one hand, and on the other the native ability of the people. These two are not changeable. We have the products; we have the country; we have the climate. They have been given to us for development and for our use. The native ability, I repeat, we have; this is unchangeable; and the third element is the only one that is given us to change and develop to an extent to make the two others available: this is intelligence—the education of our people. Upon this education must depend, altogether, the manner in which we develop this natural wealth and the extent to which we develop ourselves to become factors in the greatest civilization the world has ever known.

We welcome you, then, ladies and gentlemen, as those who are to help us in the solution of this great problem, the development of our wealth, and the development of our people. There are many factors that must enter into this work and into this development. I sometimes think that possibly in this age and time we are accepting the commercial spirit, and in our greed for industrial education and those things that will develop our wealth we are inclined to teach our people that civilization is dependent altogether upon the commercial development and industrial development of the country. These things are well and good in the solution of the great educational problem, though there are many factors that must enter; and it is indeed an auspicious beginning when we can say that we are meeting together, public school men, public school superintendents, private school men, men of colleges and universities, and of denominational and state institutions, all working to solve the great problem that lies before us. There was a time when the public school system was not popular in the Southern States. That time has passed, and today all classes of citizens, all classes of educational workers, recognize it as a great factor in the development of people. It is indeed a happy occasion when we can meet in this Athens of the South, and with united hearts try to solve the great problem that confronts the Southern people. There is work for each to do. In the development of all our people, in the development of our citizenship, the public school is an absolute necessity, and we must found a government upon intelligence; we must look to the entire people, not only to perpetuate this government, but to develop it to the greatest extent, and to make it a leader in the civilization of the country in which we live. We must look to the public school not only for the development of citizenship, but for the beginning of that preparation for life to which every boy is entitled. We must look to the public school system for that assistance that is to prepare him for the actual duties of life. But that is not all. If this were all, then indeed the commercial and industrial development of the country would be the great problem confronting its educators. But there are other sides to this. We rejoice when we study the great intellectual development in the South, and the great work that is being done by our colleges and schools in this direction. We rejoice that physical development has found a place in the educational system of the Southern States. By

the side of the college and the preparatory and the high school of today is a gymnasium properly equipped. We rejoice, then, that physical development has taken a place in our educational system. We remember, too, with grateful hearts, that all over the South we are putting up technological schools and schools for industrial development. But there is another side to education, and one that must not be overlooked. I refer to that education that is to fit our boys and girls for society; that education that is to fit them for the duties of life and those duties that do not involve the making of money and the development of wealth. We are seeking for happiness. We are looking to this age to furnish not only prosperous conditions financially, but those higher enjoyments that can come alone from a thorough intellectual culture of our people. Then this side is not to be neglected, and we hail with delight the coming among us of these people who have the working of that higher intellectual development, realizing that prosperity in this day and time depends not only on money making, but upon intellectual culture and development that fit us for the full enjoyment of the civilization of the twentieth century.

I am admonished that an address of welcome must be brief. I welcome you, then, as workers among the little children of the Southern States; I welcome you as workers in state institutions that are preparing our boys and girls for the technical occupations of life; I welcome you as members of these great faculties that are preparing our boys and girls for citizenship; I welcome you as faculties of denominational and preparatory schools that are providing that higher culture of mind and soul that will prepare our boys and girls for leaders in this world and teach us that the civilization of the age demands a thorough and well rounded culture of manhood and womanhood.

ANNUAL ADDRESS.

DR. CHARLES D. McIVER, President Southern Educational Association.

In selecting the unusual date of this meeting of the Southern Educational Association, your Executive Committee has obeyed the evident sentiment of the last meeting in Jacksonville, Fla., against holding our annual meetings during the Christmas holidays. The necessity for the change is due to the

fact that in the South Christmas week, more than any other, is the week for family gatherings, which always prevents the attendance of many teachers; and to the fact that several of the state teachers' associations and the National Association of Science Teachers hold their meetings at that time. Your committee, moreover, believing that for the sake of economy and strength it is a mistake to have two representative meetings of Southern educators with so many members belonging to each organization, began negotiations with the authorities of the Association of Southern Colleges and Preparatory Schools with a view to uniting the meetings of the two Associations.

The selection of the date for the meeting so that it could be attended by the largest possible number of teachers was difficult; and every person here ought to make his most thoughtful suggestions to the Executive Committees in regard to the date of the next joint meeting in case the present experiment shall appear to justify its continuance.

Personally, I am inclined to the opinion that more teachers would attend the meeting if Friday and Saturday were the principal days, the Sunday following being filled with an instructive program on education in the Sabbath School. If this plan should be adopted very few teachers would need to lose more than one or two days from their regular work, and by using the Saturday before the meeting and the Saturday after instead of Friday and Monday, practically no time would be lost from regular school or college work.

At any rate, there seems to be a demand and a genuine necessity for decreasing the number of general organizations depending upon the attendance of representative Southern educators. I believe not only that the combination of these two meetings is a step in that direction, but that the combination will be advantageous to both organizations and to the general cause of education.

More than a year ago it was thought wise for the Southern Educational Association to publish a statement setting forth the reasons and necessity for the existence of the organization and its purposes. It is not my intention to reiterate the facts contained in that statement. I may be permitted to say, however, that the mere pleasure of meeting friends and colleagues in service, delightful as that is and as helpful and necessary as an occasional meeting for that purpose may be, is not

sufficient justification for the expense in time and money and the inconvenience involved in attending *annual* meetings. Even pleasure of such high order will pall except as an incident of business.

This organization must devote itself seriously to some good, generous cause and do efficient service for that cause if it is to have life and lasting quality. The pleasure of association must be an incident and not the prime object of the annual meeting. The joy of helping a good cause results not only in giving occasion for the meeting of friends, but in uniting strangers and harmonizing discordant elements. This very joy has made many an army march happily and triumphantly through hardship and slaughter.

If the Southern Educational Association, while not neglecting the general interests of education, elementary and higher, will decide upon a policy and devote itself persistently for several years to the promotion of one particular educational reform, it will not only accomplish great good in that special direction, but will incidentally cause the organization to grow in numbers and in power and will strengthen any other good cause that it may advocate.

The improvement of our educational conditions depends largely upon the creation of new and more liberal public sentiment, not only among the masses of the people, but among the cultured and the wealthy classes. As a profession we need all the knowledge we have and more in regard to educational conditions, but above all we need the ability to use such knowledge in such way as to stimulate the minds of the people so that they may see their duty and their own interest in making more liberal investment in all kinds of education. We ought to be able to persuade people of wealth in the South and elsewhere to invest a portion of their means in educational plants, but above all we ought to be able to impress any American community with the wisdom and necessity of liberal taxation for a general public school system. I do not think that any intelligent person familiar with the subject believes that this generation is investing in the training of its children in accordance with its ability, its duty, or its economic interest. If this be true the teaching profession ought to be able to make the truth clear and ought to be able to lead the people to action; and the Southern Educational Association and the Association of Southern Colleges and Preparatory

Schools, representing as they do educational leaders of every class, have a task before them of sufficient importance and sufficient difficulty to challenge the power and courage of every member. There may be different opinions among us as to the relative importance of certain phases of our educational work. Some might find it difficult to do enthusiastic service for industrial education; others might feel that they could use their influence more wisely for the public good in some other direction than by advocating a larger investment in higher education; still others might not see the wisdom of establishing strong public high schools in connection with the public school system; there might be a difference of opinion as to the proper division of public and private investment between young men and young women who are seeking education beyond the public school system; and there would be some good men and women even who could not give enthusiastic service in the cause of more liberal provision for the training of teachers. There is one question, however, of primary and fundamental importance upon which all leaders in the profession could unite, and by uniting, could do effective service to our generation and the generations to come. It seems to me that the best service as citizens that college and university presidents and professors and other educational leaders could perform would be to arouse public sentiment in favor of more adequate compensation for educational service in the elementary branches. Of course, it is generally understood among intelligent people that the compensation for teaching, whether in university, college or district school, is not what it should be, but if the leaders of the profession should lead an agitation upon that subject, the ignorant man and the suspicious man, and the man who is indifferent to education, and the tax-hater would combine to accuse them of working merely for the increase of their own salaries. Moreover, as a matter of fact and justice, it is well to remember that the majority who work in high schools, colleges and universities are able to live without engaging in any other work, whereas the salary of the average public school teacher in the United States is little more than \$300 a year, and the average salary of the Southern rural public school teacher, where three-fourths of our population live, is less than \$200 a year, which means that these teachers must earn a part of their living in some other work besides that of teaching. It is difficult to

employ unskilled labor for less than \$1 a day, and yet in public and private schools millions of children are being trained for American citizenship by people who receive less compensation than that.

This question of compensation of elementary teachers is not a mere local question. The rural public school teacher in New England, in the North Central section and in the West, is little better off in this particular than the Southern rural teacher.

In July, 1905, the National Educational Association published a carefully prepared report on Salaries, Tenure and Pensions of Public School Teachers in the United States, from which the following interesting facts in regard to the salaries of elementary teachers can be secured: In cities of more than a million population—namely, New York, Chicago and Philadelphia—the average salary is a little over \$900. In the sixteen cities whose population is more than 200,000 and less than a million, the average salary is \$677. In the cities with a population between 100,000 and 200,000 the average salary is \$603. In the 418 cities with a population of from 800 to 100,000 the average salary ranges from \$446 to \$572. In all the cities of the country, except four (Chicago, Ill.; Columbus, Ga.; Meridian, Miss., and Washington, D. C.) the earnings of laborers who sweep the streets and clean the sewers is larger than the lowest salaries paid to elementary teachers.

The report shows further the salaries paid to school teachers in typical rural ungraded schools. The highest and lowest salaries for women teachers in these schools being:

In Maine, \$118 and \$268; in Massachusetts, \$206 and \$400; in Connecticut, \$180 and \$450; in New York, \$160 and \$600; in New Jersey, \$225 and \$500; in Pennsylvania, \$140 and \$450; in Maryland, \$170 and \$447; in Georgia, \$90 and \$400; in Ohio, \$138 and \$485; in Indiana, \$144 and \$440; in Illinois, \$150 and \$405; in Michigan, \$175 and \$500; in Minnesota, \$200 and \$450; in Iowa, \$132 and \$360; in Missouri, \$100 and \$900 (\$495 being the next highest salary below \$900); in South Dakota, \$120 and \$405; in Nebraska, \$75 and \$405; in Kansas, \$150 and \$440; in Colorado, \$178 and \$520; in Utah, \$136 and \$788 (the next highest salary below \$788 being \$450); in Washington, \$200 and \$585; in California, \$360 and \$850; in Oregon, \$90 and \$400.

In North Dakota the county having the lowest average salary pays \$254, and the county having the highest average salary pays \$405. The average salary in Texas is \$201. The average salary in South Carolina is \$203 for white teachers and \$83 for colored teachers. In Virginia the average salary is \$166.

A minimum salary law has been adopted by five states—Indiana, West Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania and North Dakota—which will make it impossible for an ignorant people to entrust their children to teachers who can be employed at salaries ranging from \$75 to \$150 a year. The minimum salary in Pennsylvania, for instance, is \$245; the minimum salary in Maryland, \$300.

The simple statement of these facts to the thoughtful people of the country ought to work a revolution, and, in my judgment, the best service the leaders of our profession can perform is to present them in such way as to arrest and hold the attention of the general public until its conscience and judgment shall compel the adoption of a wiser policy.

ANNUAL ADDRESS.

BROWN AYRES, President Association of Colleges and Schools.

On July 2, 1862, there was approved a congressional act the influence of which on the education of the people of the Union has been extraordinary. By the enactment into law of the far-seeing plan of Justin S. Morrill there was inaugurated a new era in higher and technical education. By the single act referred to there was rendered possible in every state of the Union a college where the industrial classes could be given at once the elements of a liberal education and the preparation for some definite career in the direction of the great industries of the country. As a piece of statesmanship this act is unsurpassed, and entitles the name of Morrill to a prominent place on the roll of fame. In the language of the noble author of the act: "The act of 1862 was intended to give those whose lives were to be devoted to agriculture or the mechanic

arts, or other industries, embracing much the largest part of our population, some chance to obtain a liberal and practical education. The colleges in existence did not pretend to do anything more than to educate young men for the three professions of divinity, law, and medicine and surgery." At the time of the preparation of this act there existed only one school of engineering in the whole union, outside of the national military and naval academies. The Renssalaer Polytechnic Institute, at Troy, New York, had begun work in a limited field, but had not developed to any great proportions. The Sheffield School at Yale, and the Lawrence School at Harvard, while vaguely outlined, had not really begun their regular work in applied science. Industrial conditions had not yet crystallized into a definite demand for better and more effective workers; the country at large was hotly engaged in the discussion by word and pen, and later by sword, of political and social questions that were well calculated to absorb the interest of the lawmakers. Yet in this troublous time Mr. Morrill was able to look far beyond the strife about him and with a clearness of vision and a largeness of soul that were extraordinary to lay the foundation for an educational development such as the world had never before seen. No sectional lines were to be observed in the outworking of the contemplated scheme. No distinctions by caste, or creed, or race were to mar the symmetrical development of this truly democratic ideal. While rejecting no one, it invited all, and in a spirit of true Christian brotherhood opened the way to many a soul that without it would have been condemned to utter desolation and neglect. Tried by any test, whether of industrial success or of true philanthropy, the Morrill bill stands as one of the greatest pieces of constructive legislation that has ever been enacted. Directly traceable to its aid and influence has been the establishment of such institutions as the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, the Sheffield Scientific School, Cornell University, and the great state universities and technical schools of the West. The influence of these and similar schools has been felt in all the marvellous industrial development that has placed our country in the forefront of world powers. And not only here, but throughout the civilized world has the leaven worked. Our beloved Southland, rising bleeding from the lashes of war, found in the aid given it by the Morrill bill the tonic and the food needed to restore

its wasted strength. No one can gainsay its great and permanent benefit to us, and we should be quick and eager to recognize our obligation.

Gradually, as one Southern state after another was able to avail itself of the provision of the act, there has arisen in each state one or more institutions supported in whole or in part by the appropriations of this act. The history of their development is in some cases a painful one. By unfortunate mistakes many of these schools have been erected as distinctly separate from the pre-existing state universities, a fact that has been a serious handicap to them and to the state universities as well. By their separateness there have tended to come about a class distinction and a rivalry which have caused pain to all who love the cause of education and who are true democrats. Dependent for their larger development on the favor of the states, they have not escaped a political control that in many cases has seriously handicapped their development, and lacking the presence of the idealists of the university proper they have not always given the *liberal* training contemplated by their founder. Seclolism and superficiality have naturally been a phase of their development, but gradually they have adjusted themselves more or less completely to their environment, have found the proper field for their efforts, and are today doing splendid work for the upbuilding of the Southland. But in a measure each one stands alone, in no definite and organic relationship to the schools below it on the one hand or to the schools above it on the other. While hospitably received by the national organization of such schools, these Southern land grant colleges lack yet a unifying force that will place them in proper relation to each other and to the general educational scheme of the South. Can we not hope that such a unifying force will be forthcoming?

Ten years ago, almost to a day, there was organized at Atlanta the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States. Conceived by the eminent scholar and educator who has served it continuously from its inception as its secretary and treasurer, and owing its vitality and widespread influence largely to his true educational statesmanship and devotion, this Association has been in every sense a blessing to the cause of true higher education in the Southern States. Though at the time of its formation the educational system of the South had already begun to take form and defi-

niteness of character, there was yet lacking a co-ordinating force by which the full benefit of existing and future educational foundations could be realized. Those engaged in the work of higher education lacked definiteness in their conception of the places to be filled by their respective institutions. Those engaged in the work of secondary education were almost equally at sea in their understanding of their own fields. Chaos, more or less orderly, was the condition that prevailed. The ten years that have passed have seen a wonderful change and improvement. We now have rather definite notions of the relations of college and secondary school; we have taken counsel with each other as to the best means for the removal of our local difficulties; we have come together on a co-operative plan for the setting of standard examination questions for entrance to college; we have done these and many other things and they are good. But throughout the whole of this period we have had in mind, largely if not exclusively, the needs and problems of the college of liberal arts, forgetting that a complete solution of its problems and needs, in its relation to the system of preparatory schools, might still leave largely unsolved the larger problems of the relation of all the lower schools to all the higher schools, whether these latter be purely academic or semi-professional in character, or whether the former be the special fitting schools or the much larger number of public schools, conceived and operated with no clear-cut purpose of college preparation. Would it not be a useful thing for this Association at the outset of its second decade of existence to enlarge its scope to an extent sufficient to bring in the large number of exceedingly valuable technical and industrial colleges on the one hand, and the still larger and rapidly increasing number of public schools on the other? Would our organization not gather strength as well as breadth from a closer relation with these schools of the people, and would not the general cause of higher education in the South be greatly helped by a well-considered plan of this kind? Our present policy rejects institutions in most of the Southern States which appeal strongly to the present sympathies and needs of the people of those states, and schools whose duty it is to train by far the larger number of the future citizens of the South. Can we not, without in any way lowering our standards or altering our requirements for purely academic work, enlist the active interest of the agricultural and mechan-

ical colleges and other technical schools, and by co-operation with them help them to see more clearly their own place in the educational scheme, and make them the co-workers with rather than the rivals of the academic colleges proper in their own and other states? And can we not so broaden our conception of proper college admission requirements as to enable the public high schools to find a place in our counsels, along with those that have a more restricted object or purpose? In other words, is not the time ripe for a greater democracy and a wider field of usefulness for this very valuable Association?

Perhaps the most striking and significant phenomenon of the educational development of the last quarter of a century has been the extraordinary growth and success of the great state universities of the middle West and the Pacific coast. Founded as most of them have been by the government land grants provided for in the Morrill bills of 1862 and 1890, these state universities seem to have met the needs of the masses of the people to a quite remarkable degree. Beginning as they usually did with the more special consideration of the needs of agriculture and the mechanic arts, they have gradually enlarged the sphere of their activities and influence until now they occupy almost the whole realm of human knowledge and appeal to all classes of citizens. Where a few years back their students were numbered by hundreds they are now numbered by thousands, and the annual appropriations received from the state legislatures by many of them would have been considered adequate endowments for universities a generation ago. The actual service that they render to their several communities can hardly be reckoned in dollars and cents; yet on this basis alone it has come to be recognized that their direct return far exceeds the cash outlay required to keep them going and expanding. Their history seems to establish most clearly the value of this type of institution to an undeveloped and developing section. They are the "colleges of the people," and the "people" in this sense constitute by far the majority of the population.

With few exceptions the Western States have not made the mistake of separating the purely academic instruction and the more technical kind especially contemplated by the Morrill act. From the point of view of economy and true democracy this is cause for sincere congratulation to them. Such

developments were, perhaps, only possible under the truly democratic conditions existing in these western states. Class distinctions, so familiar to us in the South, and to a lesser but still definite degree in the East, were and are now relatively non-existent in the West. The existence of class distinctions and prejudices is sufficient to explain the unfortunate steps taken in most of the eastern and Southern States where institutions to carry out the purposes of the land grant act were established separately from and, in most cases, independently of, the state universities or other already existing institutions, thus not only tending to confirm and perpetuate the undemocratic class prejudice that brought them into being, but constituting them for a long term of years rivals for patronage and favors. This condition must inevitably weaken the general educational system and prevent the attainment of the best results. There is no denying the fact that these land grant colleges appeal to the hearts and, in some measure, satisfy the needs of the people, and in the South we have seen them develop in a phenomenal manner while the purely academic institutions seemed for a time to be left behind. There is not, however, any conflict of interest between the two types of colleges, nor should there be, if each understood the other and by mutual helpfulness more fully realized the rounded educational scheme of the state. To leave land grant colleges to solve their problems unaided or to force them into an organization independent of the present one, would be to lose an opportunity to do a real service to Southern education and crystallize yet more definitely the feeling of jealousy and rivalry. It may be contended that there is nothing in the present constitution of this Association that excludes land grant colleges from membership. A little consideration will show, however, that the present by-laws, being framed specifically to meet the needs of the liberal arts colleges which constitute our membership, are such as to exclude the land grant colleges, not solely because they are lower in grade, but also because they are different from the colleges of the older type. Relying as they must on the public schools, and even on the rural schools, for their supply of students, it is useless for them to expect for many years to cover the preparation contemplated by the by-laws of our present organization. Such requirements as they can exact should be exacted by them, but there must be a large amount of elasticity in requirements, else they will fail to

reach the classes for which they were established and will lose the opportunity to do a large and useful work for their states. Would it not be possible to invite these colleges to come into our Association on a basis that would allow them to maintain their logical relation to the industrial classes which they serve and yet feel the inspiring effects of association with institutions which must and should stand for somewhat higher ideals than they themselves could independently establish? I believe that it would be both possible and beneficial to all of us and to them. The ways and means for the accomplishment of this may require long and careful consideration. I do not attempt to suggest a final solution of the problem, but I believe the beginning will lie in the recasting of our requirements for admission to college, extending the list of subjects that may be offered to cover all subjects that are taught "in public secondary and high schools," and adopting the point system with a smaller number of points required to enter a land grant or technical school than is required to enter a college of liberal arts. This will allow of the recognition of agriculture, domestic science, and certain manual work, the introduction of which into our public schools, both rural and urban, will mean so much for the masses of the people in our Southern States. It will also bring about a unification of our public school and collegiate instruction, a consummation that is devoutly to be wished.

The land grant colleges would not be the only gainers by the adoption of the point system and the closer affiliation with the public high school. As now constituted the colleges of our Association apparently look largely for their supply of well prepared students to private fittings schools or to the comparatively few good public high schools in the larger cities of the South. This supply is by no means large—and if the trend of things in the South is to be similar to that in the West, as seems altogether likely, the private fitting school will in time become almost a vanishing quantity. The extraordinarily rapid growth in numbers and beneficent influence of the great universities of the West would hardly have been possible if they had looked to the private schools for their supplies of students. And yet will any one question the solidity of their academic achievements? May we not by following in their footsteps be more likely to reach a larger development than would ever be possible to us by following our present course?

While this Association exists primarily for the objects specified in its constitution, namely, to consider the interests common to colleges and preparatory schools, I do not think that it should stop with the consideration of these interests in any restricted sense. I think that without encroaching too much on the field of our sister organization, the Southern Educational Association, it might with great advantage consider very carefully the relation of the public school movement to the college and the relation of the college to it, looking to a rational and practical adjustment that would make the line of least resistance lead directly to the college door. To leave the working out of the public school system to the schoolmen alone will not tend to produce a healthy condition of the colleges, unless the colleges are ready to capitulate entirely and accept the dictum of the schoolmen as to what they may expect from their incoming students. By a cordial and helpful co-operation the adjustment may be so fairly made as to accomplish all that either party has a right to expect.

When the colleges individually, or through this Association collectively, approach the study of the public preparatory school system as it is, they must do so in a spirit of compromise and with readiness to yield many cherished ideals, if careful study shall show that these ideals are not adapted to the needs of the great body of the people. For in a Christian democracy like ours the way must by all means be left open to any youth, no matter how lowly, or how poor his advantages, provided only that he have ambition and industry. To block the progress of such an one by arbitrary conditions that, through no fault of his, he can not possibly fulfill, is surely not either wise or generous. In a careful study of the high school question in the South presented to this Association at the 1903 meeting, Superintendent E. C. Brooks, of Raleigh, N. C., clearly pointed out the chaotic condition of our high school situation as a whole, and the lack of co-ordination of educational effort is clearly indicated here as well as an inability of the land grant colleges under present conditions to become active members of this Association. Can we not take a broader view of the whole situation and extend the scope of our present Association so that more order may be brought into this educational chaos, and a more perfect alignment brought about of all of our collegiate and preparatory institutions? I look forward to the time when this may be done and we shall by a

better mutual understanding and helpfulness remove the barriers that keep us apart and which now tend to produce misunderstanding, prejudice and jealousies. If this Association will become the active agent in this reconciliation its future decades will far exceed in usefulness the very valuable one that has just closed.

FUNCTIONS AND RELATIONS OF THE STATE UNIVERSITY.

PRESIDENT D. B. PURINTON, University of West Virginia, Morgantown, West Virginia.

The state university has come to be the typical seat of liberal learning in America. Our American universities may be roughly divided into four classes: denominational universities, as Chicago, Princeton, Oberlin, Ohio Wesleyan; private corporate universities, as Harvard, Leland Stanford, Clarke, Tulane; city universities, as New York, Cincinnati; and state universities, as now found in nearly all of the states of the Union. Forty years ago denominational and corporate universities were greatly in the lead. Since that time state institutions have been steadily and rapidly gaining in relative importance, prominence and power. Specially within the last decade has their growth been phenomenal. In one case, the student body has grown from 280 to 1,100, in another, from 600 to 3,400. These institutions now have more than five thousand instructors and sixty-five thousand students. There are fifty American institutions whose students number one thousand or more each. One half of these are state universities. There are eight institutions with about four thousand students each. Four of these are state universities. Nor is this all. The quality of their work is quite equal to its quantity. In thoroughness of instruction, wealth of equipment, use of advanced methods and fruitfulness of original investigation, state universities are easily in the front rank. A careful examination will show that these institutions now outclass either of the other three classes named, and are practically equal to all three of the classes combined. It will be readily seen, therefore, that a consideration of the functions and relations of the state university is distinctly worth while in a gathering of American educators.

I. The function of the state university is purely and solely educational. It is neither political nor partisan, neither sectional nor sectarian. Its purpose is to furnish appropriate and ample educational facilities for the entire citizenship of the state whose interest it serves. To accomplish this purpose there are four characteristics of its work which are manifestly essential. It should be *altruistic, democratic, cyclopedic, pedagogic.*

1. That it should be altruistic seems almost self-evident. The state university does not exist for itself, is not an end in itself, is only a means to an end, a servant of the state. But all true service is altruistic. All noble character is built on devotion to a cause. The self-seeker is universally and righteously self-condemned. The world's historic heroes have been self-forgetful altruists, every one. Even life itself is transmitted and perpetuated on principles of practical altruism. The parent is devitalized for the vitalization of the offspring. Even among lower orders of life beautiful examples of altruism are often observed.

And yet in the higher walks of human life this principle seems to have been strangely forgotten. The more fortunate classes are forgetful of the less fortunate. The educated are criminally unmindful of the needs of the ignorant. Colleges and universities have not infrequently been under this just condemnation. They exist to and for themselves. They are quite too prone to wrap themselves in their robes of intellectual superiority and educational self-righteousness, to dwell apart from ordinary men and to care little or nothing for the struggles of the work-a-day world on the lower levels of life. But this spirit of educational Phariseeism is happily passing away. Education is not now viewed as an end in itself, but only as a means to a greater end. That end is useful service. We still agree with Emerson that the college bred man is the most fortunate of men and one of Heaven's chiefest favorites. He is such, however, not from any selfish satisfaction he may draw from his own learning, but because of his added power to serve other men. We now ask of such a man, not "Who is he? Who was his father? How was he bred? What is his pedigree?" But we rather ask: "What can he do? What is he doing for the weal of the world?" And we judge him accordingly. The spirit of these questions has with peculiar propriety permeated the university life. The modern institution of liberal learning exists, not for itself, but for the good it

can do. And this is especially to be expected of the state university which derives its existence and support from the entire commonwealth. It lives to serve.

2. But, again, the work of the state university should be democratic as well as altruistic. It is needless to say that this term "democratic" is here used in its etymological and not in its political sense. These two terms "democratic" and "altruistic" are by no means identical. That narrow-minded deacon who, according to the venerable story so often repeated, prayed thus, "O, Lord, bless me and my wife, my son John and his wife, us four, no more," was doubtless altruistic enough, but not at all democratic. Now some such spirit has sometimes been observed in institutions of learning. They ask for a large blessing, indeed, but do not care to have it very widely distributed. It is desired for the few, not for the many, for the favored classes, not for the froward masses. Now, whatever may be said of the right of some universities to exist and to operate solely for the rich and the favored few, one thing seems certain. No state university has any such right. Specially and emphatically is this true of that large number of state universities which are receiving the benefits of the Congressional Land-Grant Acts, so-called, of 1862 and 1890. The first of these Acts, as you remember, provides for the setting apart of about ten million acres of the public domain, to be appropriated *per capita* to the several states and territories for the establishment of institutions for the free education of the masses of citizens who in the several states might avail themselves of the advantages thus offered. The second Act, popularly known as the "Morrill Act," makes additional provision of \$25,000 per annum for each state, for the furtherance of the same purpose. This purpose was declared by Senator Morrill, author of the two bills, to be "to enable the industrial classes of the country to obtain a cheap, solid and substantial education, and get it when they could not in any other way, because of the cost of the classical schools of the country." These words of his are simple in their greatness and great in their simplicity. The legislation to which they refer was original, unique and epoch-making in the history of education. Never before in the annals of the world had any state or nation made general provision for the highest education of the lowest classes of her citizens. To the United States among nations and to Senator Morrill among statesmen, belongs the honor of this great deed. And it means much in every state university which has accepted its provisions. It

means that in any such state the humblest farmer who tortures a meagre existence out of the unwilling soil and barren rocks of his paltry acres, and who pays but a few paltry pennies into the state treasury, has just as much right for himself and for his children to all the privileges and advantages of the state university as has the multi-millionaire whose tax bills may require seven figures to compute them. Such is the genius of the state university. There is to be, neither within its halls nor without them, any aristocracy whatever save that of intelligence and character. The poor man's son is to have equal chance with the rich. No costly methods of traditional customs or contemptuous coteries are to make intolerable the university life of the student who has the grace and grit to work his own way through college. The rather is he to be specially honored for his noble ambition.

Now this is a comparatively new idea in university life. Before the Land-Grant Acts no such spirit prevailed. University education was expensive—so very expensive as to cut out the poor. It is still so as a rule in universities of the old type. A good illustration of the situation has recently come to the notice of American educators in connection with the university of Oxford, England. The Cecil Rhodes Scholarships in Oxford furnish fifteen hundred dollars a year to each student. But the holders of these scholarships are officially notified beforehand that the amount named is barely sufficient to pay the necessary expenses of a year's residence at Oxford. Notice what this means. A father with five children to educate must furnish between thirty and forty thousand dollars for their education at Oxford. And this in addition to home expenses must tax the resources of a poor man beyond all possibility of accomplishment. It is practically prohibitive. The American state university with its free tuition and moderate demands is by no means so exacting. One-fourth of the above named amount may well suffice if need be. Indeed, any American youth with good health, good mind, good character and persevering efforts, may take a full course in his own state university, if he really determines to do so. And this is altogether as it should be. In such a country as ours at least state education should be broadly democratic.

3. But, again, the work of the state university should be cyclopedic. By this I mean that all subjects of study should be included in the curricula of the university. As all students

who apply should be received, so likewise all studies desired should be offered. This obligation, like that previously mentioned, grows likewise out of the very constitution of the university. The Land-Grant Act of '62, to which reference has already been made, explains its purpose in these words, "In order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions in life." "Not excluding classical studies." Now these are very wide, ample and inclusive provisions. "Liberal and practical education in the several pursuits and professions in life"? That includes almost everything. Liberal education takes in the classics, science, art, philosophy, in a word all the culture studies, so called. Practical education takes in all professional schools, commercial and mechanical pursuits, clinical and shop work, and the application of mathematics and science to manufacturing, mining, handicraft, manual training, and all other useful work in which a citizen may properly engage and for which ample provision is not otherwise made. This was the evident intention of congress. And in conformity thereto, every state accepting the provisions of the congressional grant is expected to offer instruction in all branches of useful knowledge, the only limitation being the financial ability of the state itself. Indeed, this is the basal idea of any university properly so called. It is to be, as its very name implies, a university—a universe of knowledge, or a knowledge of the universe. It is therefore the plain duty of the state university to prepare any citizen for any work which the well-being of the state demands. This means the physician, the attorney, the teacher, the musician, the engineer, the farmer, the soldier; but it means also the mason, the bricklayer, the carpenter, the weaver, the miller, the manufacturer, the merchant and the banker as well. Indeed, it means the "butcher, the baker and the candle-stick maker." This view involves an immense responsibility to be met. The ultimate goal to be sought is nothing short of universal knowledge. As far as may be possible, the work of the state university should be cyclopedic, all-embracing.

4. But once more. University work should likewise be pedagogic. And this term is here used in its etymological sense. Under the ancient Greek system of education, you remember, the *ΠΑΙΔΑΓΩΓΟΣ*—the pedagogue—was literally the boy-leader, the one who guided the student to the place and presence of the master from whom the great truths of classical

learning were to be received. Now in some such sense the state university should be a *ΡΑΙΔΑΓΩΓΟΣ*—a boy-leader, a youth-leader, whether of boy or of girl, a wise and infallible guide to new truth. It should be abreast of the times, should have and use the best methods, should furnish the highest possible ideals of thought and life, and should strive as far as may be to realize them in its professors and its students. It should undertake original investigations, push out into the unknown and widen the realm of knowledge. No citizen should feel called upon to apologize for his university, simply because the state's university should be above reproach in all things.

Nor is this all. The university ought to be a safe and worthy leader in all matters educational throughout the state. It should interest itself in everything that makes for the good of the youth of the state. It should lend a sympathetic, helping hand to every wise endeavor for the improvement of education along any of its lines from the bottom to the top. Particularly should it stimulate intermediate and secondary schools to be and do the best that is possible to them. All educational history shows that pedagogical progress is handed down from above and not pushed up from beneath. High schools are not pushed higher by schools below them. They are pulled higher by schools above them. This pulling process is one of the evident duties of the state university. For this additional reason the university must be ahead of the age, rather than behind it, must face the rising sun, take the bold initiative and look for new results.

It will be admitted, I think, that the work of the state university as herein outlined is broad, important, exacting, burdensome. To meet such demands, great wisdom, broad-minded statesmanship and unlimited resources are imperatively required. If here and there a failure or defect in some state university may be found, no thoughtful citizen will be surprised, offended or discouraged thereby. But all good citizens will nevertheless insist that the standard be set high, and that the university actually measure up to it as far and as fast as possible.

II. A second question remains to be discussed, namely, The relations of the state university. I am admonished, however, that the limits of this paper will admit nothing more than a discussion of exceptional brevity. The chief relations

of the state university are of two kinds, those to other educational institutions and those to the state itself.

1. As to other institutions. The university is the highest institution in the state, and as such is at the head of the educational system of the state. It is therefore organically and intimately related to all other elements of the system, whether they be high schools, normal schools, professional schools, grammar schools, graded or ungraded schools. This relation should always be recognized as cordial, appreciative and helpful. It should be critical only when necessary, and thoroughly sympathetic even then. As organic parts of one and the same educational body, these institutions must suffer together if need be, and rejoice together if it may be. The relations of the state university to private and denominational institutions located within the state are of a different character. There is nothing organic or essential here. And yet an attitude of comity, courtesy and co-operation should always be maintained. Certainly nothing that approaches antagonism or rivalry should ever exist. In every state there is ample room for the denominational college as well as for the state university. Each has its place to fill, its work to do. Both are needful to the best good of either. Both contribute to the same ultimate end. They are educational brothers, co-workers in the great cause of universal intelligence, virtue and righteousness. Let them join willing hands in fraternal co-operation for the weal of society, the home, the church and the state, and all will be well.

2. But there is another and utterly different relation of the state university, that is, to the state itself. This relation is by no means fraternal or co-ordinate. It is rather filial on the one hand and paternal on the other. The university is in a sense the creature of the state, created by its authority, supported by its resources, subject to its will. It is therefore the servant of the state. Notice, I say servant of the state, the entire state, not of any particular portion of the state, nor yet of any particular class or interest in the state, nor even of the political party which may chance to dominate the state. Education is for all citizens alike, and must forever be strictly non-local and non-partisan. As such the state university may loyally serve the entire commonwealth and may earn the gratitude and honor of all good citizens.

A story is told of Alexander the Great, how on a certain

occasion he was in pressing need of a large quantity of gold. A certain mule-driver was started to the capital with the requisite amount of the precious metal. When in sight of the palace, the mule, utterly overcome by reason of the great weight and the rapid driving, fell beneath his burden and refused to go farther. Whereupon the driver, loyal to his trust and to his king, with superhuman effort raised the gold to his own back and struggled on toward the palace. Alexander, seeing his noble deed and observing that he, too, was about to fall beneath the precious burden, is said to have said, "Bear up, brother, bear up a few steps farther, for all the gold thou bearest shall be thine." The story may be apochryphal, but it is certainly beautiful, a story of faithful service on the one hand and of generous reward on the other.

Now the average American state is not exactly an Alexander, nor is its university exactly a mule-driver. The students, at least, would protest against such an uncomplimentary comparison. . And yet in its arms of loving endeavor, every state university is bearing for the state a burden of youth and beauty and human possibility far more precious than gold and far more needful to the state than any amount of gold could ever have been to the great king. Let us hope that this service will be loyally rendered and royally recognized by the great commonwealth in whose interest it is put forth.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN THE SOUTHERN STATES.

ALABAMA.

HON. H. C. GUNNELLS.

I am here, Mr. President, to represent our most excellent State Superintendent, whose modesty forbids him to tell the good things which have been accomplished in Alabama during the last year. It is a case of Aaron and Moses, except that in this instance Moses is not only the power behind the throne, but if he would only speak, is the much better speaker.

I am to say something of educational progress in Alabama during the last year. Let it be understood that I am out of school and am telling only good things. Of course everything

is not as it should be down in that good state where people no longer rest, but hustle; but we tell our difficulties and shortcomings to our own folks, we talk them over to our children at our own fireside and chastise in accordance with the gravity of the sins.

These people assembled here in Nashville have not a thing in the world to do with our internal—I was about to say eternal—disturbances. We are trying to look after them, and if a determination born of duty's strong conviction foreshadows success, we will look after them properly.

I want to tell you, however, some things that have been accomplished in the last year. In Alabama there is a law allowing counties by a three-fifths vote to levy a one-mill tax for schools. Since last April this tax has been levied in fourteen counties. In these fourteen counties there are 836 school districts and the state school fund has been supplemented \$50,000. The county of Clay, a mountain county, and composed almost entirely of property owners, with only a branch railroad touching it, out of a total of 3,400 qualified electors, cast only thirty-nine votes against the measure to levy the one mill tax for schools, and it is said that these thirty-nine votes were not legal votes, for our constitution especially denies the right of suffrage to persons of unsound mind.

During the summer that has just passed, hundreds of school houses have been built—good school houses—and they are building today. One is being finished as I am talking. I can almost hear the last nail as it is driven home. We are building them at the rate of more than one a day.

When it is taken into consideration that in Alabama the state does not aid in any way in the building of school houses the importance of this movement will be more readily understood. Every public school house which to this date has been built in Alabama has been built from money directly out of the pockets of the people who patronize the schools. The people have come to see the need for good school buildings and they are building them in all parts of the state. The last legislature of Alabama passed a law allowing county boards of revenue, under certain conditions, to issue bonds for the purpose of building school houses. The county of Perry, a black belt county where there are 1,912 white children and 7,326 negro children, is about to issue bonds to build a modern school house in every district. Other counties will follow suit.

By far the most important accomplishment in the interest of education in Alabama has been the awakening of public sentiment along this line. Six years ago the state democratic platform, after repeated efforts on the part of friends of education, contained a declaration in which it was said, "We pledge the people that, in the matter of public education, no backward step shall be taken." Today every candidate for office, from governor to constable, declares emphatically, enthusiastically, and unconditionally, in favor of public education, of more money for schools, for better schools, longer terms and better teachers. No longer do we confine ourselves to the doubtful declaration that no backward step shall be taken. The declaration now is: "We declare for and pledge a forward movement in the matter of public education." So strong is this sentiment in favor of public education in Alabama that a short while ago the Governor of the state, in an address in which he was discussing the proper use of a surplus of nearly one million dollars in the state treasury, recommended that the same be appropriated to the public schools of the state. For some time, a few months ago, the matter of calling an extra session of the legislature of Alabama for the purpose of making such an appropriation had the serious consideration of the Governor of the state.

Alabama has just cause to congratulate herself upon the standard of the teaching force in her public schools. Under the administration of our state law for the examination of teachers, incompetents have been weeded out. A demand from trustees for first-class and only first-class teachers has been instituted. No longer does a good teacher have to hunt for a position, but the positions are hunting for the teachers. So lively is the sentiment in favor of public education that the people in the rural districts have begun to learn that the country child is entitled to as good a teacher as is the city child, and these trustees are repeatedly impressing upon the teachers that unless they become enthusiastic in their profession, unless they keep up with the procession, they are no longer wanted.

A remarkable advance has been made in the length of the public school term. A few years ago the average length of the term was three months. For the year beginning October 1st nearly half of the counties require and will have school of at least seven months' duration, absolutely free of tuition fees. This rapid advance comes as a direct result of the levy of the

one-mill school tax, and instead of reducing the salaries of teachers has increased them twenty-five or thirty per cent.

I feel that I should be remiss did I not give proper credit for the work which has been accomplished. Supt. Hill, as the head of the educational department of the state, has led this fight all along the line for better and for higher things. Not one day has he been idle, but in thought, in plans, and in active speech, he has stirred every city, town, hamlet and rural district in Alabama to hope for and demand the very best for their children.

Let me close by using the words of the late Joseph B. Graham, who was one of the best friends the cause of education ever had in Alabama:

"Be it said to the credit of Alabama, that, although her people are comparatively poor, though she has in common with other Southern States suffered the disasters of war and borne the burdens and sacrifices of reconstruction, and though forty-four per cent. of her population belongs to a race which pays but little more than five per cent. of the taxes, still our new organic law forbids that discrimination inspired by prejudice which would restrict the educational privileges and rights of a particular class or race according to its contribution in taxes for the support of the government. This equality of benefits did not arise from any cringing fear of federal amendments, but from a spontaneous philanthropy too generous to take advantage of the poor, and a sense of right and humanity too proud to stoop to wrong an inferior race.

"In my opinion, the highest and sincerest expression of the principle of fraternity and the most splendid prophecy of the permanence and high standard of our future civilization are to be found at one and the same time in the willingness of the people, through honest government, to make liberal contribution for free public schools for the education of all the people.

"This ideal condition has not always obtained in Alabama, but I stand here to pledge the enlightened sentiment and property-holding citizenship of my beloved state, as far as in their ability lies, to this platform, and only this, for our future public education."

ARKANSAS.

HON. JOHN H. HINEMON.

I have been allotted the space of ten minutes in which to make a report upon the educational progress during the past year. I can not go into detail, but I will offer a hurried statement of some of the general conditions. There is a great educational awakening in the state; the Arkansas Press Association, the Arkansas Bar Association and various other societies and conventions are making the educational improvement of the state a regular topic for discussion at their annual sessions. Educational mass meetings are held in every quarter of the state. The leading newspapers are taking an active part in the general agitation for better school advantages. We are in the midst of a genuine educational revival. All over the state magnificent public school buildings are being erected. Towns with a population of from two to three thousand are erecting school houses which cost from fifteen to thirty thousand dollars. The larger towns and cities of Arkansas have public school buildings which are thoroughly modern in every respect and are the equal of those found in any other part of the American Union. Manual training, domestic science and kindergarten work are in use in most of our best schools. Our city superintendents and town principals are keenly alert on all questions of educational progress and lose no opportunity for self-improvement and the general uplift of their schools. Our people are beginning to realize more and more that splendid buildings, modern equipments, elegant furniture and beautiful grounds are only outward tokens and that the spirit and life of the school can be made only by placing a first class teacher in every room in these magnificent buildings. The people of the state are coming to realize more and more that "the teacher is the school," hence, there is a universal desire and demand that only the best-qualified persons obtainable shall be employed to teach in the public schools of the state. This has led to a general agitation of the question of better salaries for our teachers. There is hardly a city in the state which has not made a general advance in the pay of teachers during the last twelve months. Be it said to the eternal credit of the school boards that without exception they want to pay more and will do so as soon as the money at their command will permit them to do so.

The standard of requirements for teachers' certificates is constantly becoming higher through the faithful and fearless efforts of our county examiners, most of whom are men who are keenly conscious of the high responsibilities that rest upon them and who feel that it is their duty to protect children from incompetent teachers even though in doing so they may incur the displeasure of political grafters and persons who would pervert a sacred trust and debauch the public school by using it for private gain or public charity.

In no respect has there been greater improvement during the last twelve months than the growing determination on the part of school directors to disregard partisan pleas, appeals for the helpless and unfortunate, and all other influences of like character, and make personal worth and scholastic fitness the sole basis in the selection of teachers. There is, too, a growing disposition to properly recognize the true province of the superintendent or principal in determining the educational policy of the schools. There was a time when, especially in the smaller towns, teachers were elected without consultation, conference, or recommendation from the principal of the school. This condition no longer exists among the more progressive and broad-gauged school directors who do not regard their election to office as an opportunity for the distribution of a certain amount of patronage, but rather as the imposition of a sacred trust which involves the life and happiness of every child in the school district.

By strenuous efforts we have succeeded in driving the chart venders from the children's temple. In my state there is a strong and growing demand in favor of scrupulous honesty in public office and school directors as a rule are held to a rigid account of the sacred trust committed to them.

During the last session of the legislature both houses by unanimous vote passed a bill providing for state aid to high schools which would have given every boy and girl in the state an opportunity for a high school education within his own county free of charge, but this bill, one of the best ever passed by any Arkansas legislature, failed to win the approval of the chief executive and did not become a law because it was not vetoed until after the final adjournment of the legislature. The last legislature also submitted an amendment to the state constitution which will permit the legislature to vote a tax not to exceed three mills on the dollar for general school purposes to

be distributed to the various counties of the state on the basis of scholastic population. The amendment also provides that school districts may vote a local tax not to exceed seven mills on the dollar for school purposes. All the energies of the friends of education in Arkansas are being united to secure the adoption of this amendment at the general election in September, 1906. If adopted, Arkansas will take front rank among the states of the south in providing public education for all the children of the state.

I am glad to state, too, that the people generally are coming to realize that teaching is a science of well-established principles and an art of very difficult processes. More and more there is a demand for trained teachers as there is a demand for trained workers in every other department of human effort. I confidently believe that the next legislature will establish a special school for the professional training of white teachers.

The sentiment of the people toward higher education is abundantly demonstrated by the fact that the last legislature made the largest appropriation ever made by any legislature of the state for the support of the State University. With the adoption of the proposed amendment to the state constitution, which will permit increased taxation for public school purposes, with state aid for high schools and the establishment of a county high school in every county of the state, with liberal appropriation for the maintenance of the State University, with the establishment of a state normal school for the training of our teachers, and a technological school for young persons who wish to enter upon the mechanical arts, we confidently believe that the day is near at hand when Arkansas will claim first place in the educational work among the states of the south. These advantages coupled with her remarkable resources, her great timber fields, her immense beds of mineral wealth and vast areas of fertile soil, and her noble citizenship, will make her queen of the south and one of the brightest jewels in the southern constellation.

FLORIDA.

HON. W. M. HOLLOWAY.

COMPREHENSIVE EXAMINATIONS ARE NECESSARY TO
ADVANCEMENT.

Section 6 of Article 12 of the State Constitution reads as follows: "A special tax of one mill on the dollar of all taxable property in the state, in addition to the other means provided, shall be levied and apportioned annually for the support and maintenance of public free schools."

Section 8 of the same article reads as follows: "Each county shall be required to assess and collect annually for the support of public free schools therein, a tax of not less than three mills, nor more than seven mills on the dollar, of all taxable property in the same."

Section 9 of the same article reads as follows: "The county school fund shall consist, in addition to the tax provided in section 8 of this article, of the proportion of interest of the state school fund and of the one mill tax apportioned to the county; all capitation taxes collected within the county, and shall be disbursed by the County Board of Public Instruction solely for the maintenance and support of the public free schools."

Section 10 of the same article reads as follows: "The legislature may provide for the division of any county or counties into convenient school districts; and for the election, biennially, of three school trustees, who shall hold their office for two years, and who shall have the supervision of all the schools within the district; and for the levying and collection of a district school tax, for the exclusive use of public free schools within the district, whenever a majority of the qualified electors thereof that pay a tax on real or personal property shall vote in favor of such levy; provided, that any tax authorized by this section shall not exceed three mills on the dollar, in any one year, of the taxable property in the district."

Chapter 5381, An act to provide for state aid to public schools in this state, to prescribe conditions and to make appropriations therefor, Laws of 1905, appropriates \$50,000 annually; Chapter 5382, "An act to define the grades of instruction that shall be taught in the uniform system of public schools of Florida; to aid and encourage the establishment of public high schools and rural graded schools; to prescribe the

conditions and to make appropriations therefor," Laws of 1905, appropriates \$50,000 annually, and Chapter 5383, "An act providing state aid further than the one mill school tax, and prescribing the duty of county school boards, their chairmen and the county treasurer for certain common schools of this state, not otherwise receiving state aid," Laws of 1905, appropriates annually \$25,000. It will be observed that the appropriations under these several acts alone aggregate \$125,000. The raising of this amount will require the assessment and collection, annually, of a tax of more than one mill on all of the taxable property of the state. The amount annually accruing to the school fund of the state under the latter clause of Section 9 of Article 12, as quoted above, is \$75,905.00. The foregoing, as shown by the various constitutional and statutory provisions quoted, demonstrates the fact that the people in the most progressive counties in this state are paying a direct school tax of nearly thirteen mills on the dollar, more than one mill of which they have voluntarily placed upon themselves this year through their representatives in the legislature. Chapter 5204, "An act to provide for the certification of teachers and to prescribe requirements for the various grades of certificates," makes a third grade certificate valid for two years from the date of issue, good in any county in the state upon the endorsement of the county superintendent, and re-issuable for life; a second grade certificate valid for four years from date of issue, good in any county of the state upon the endorsement of the county superintendent, and re-issuable for life; and a first grade certificate valid for five years from date of issue, good in any county in the state upon the endorsement of the county superintendent, re-issuable for life, and, under certain conditions, valid for life without further examination. Now, in view of the fact that the people are voluntarily putting so much money into the school system, I take it as a matter of plain business that they expect larger returns from such investment, and since the legislature saw fit to enlarge the scope of all grades of certificates, I take it that it meant for a certificate, when once obtained, to represent more to the holder thereof than such certificate had hitherto represented. Infinitely more important to this state than a large financial return for the money expended by the people, and to the teacher than that she should hold a high grade certificate obtained as the result of an easy examination, is

the fact that the person who attempts to instruct children shall be competent to do the work which she undertakes. I have felt that it was perhaps necessary to say this much in defense of recent examinations about which a few complaints have come to my attention, and in defense of others which may be held in the future. I wish to state, for the information of the public, that the high standard attained in the state of Florida under former administrations shall not be lowered, but on the contrary, the school system as hitherto established shall be enlarged and strengthened.

**THE PRINCIPAL OF A SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL MUST HOLD A STATE
CERTIFICATE.**

Division C of the regulations of the State Board of Education says: "That state aid will not be granted to any school unless every teacher therein holds a legal and unexpired certificate issued in Florida; the certificate of a principal of a high school must be of such grade as to show that he, himself, is qualified to teach any subject in the high school course of study; and the principal of a rural graded school shall be required to hold at least a first grade certificate." A first grade certificate shows that the holder thereof has, in addition to the nine common branches, passed a satisfactory examination in algebra, physical geography and civil government, while in the senior high school course there are required to be taught geometry, trigonometry, Latin, general history, physics and zoology. The State Board of education has, therefore, very properly decided that the principal of a senior high school shall be required to hold a state certificate in order that he may be pronounced competent to do the work required of him. But this regulation does not go into effect until the first of July, 1906; hence, all applicants will have ample time in which to prepare for the examination for this certificate. It is the intention of the State Board of Education, as soon as the educational conditions in this state will permit, to have the regulation apply also to the principals of junior high schools.

PRIMARY CERTIFICATES.

Section 8 of Chapter 5204 reads as follows: "That a primary certificate may be issued by the state superintendent to any eligible applicant who shall furnish satisfactory testimonials as to peculiar fitness for primary teaching, and who shall

have made a grade of 80 per cent. in such oral and written examination on primary studies and methods as may be prescribed by the state superintendent, with such assistants as he may select. Primary certificates shall be valid for four years from the date of issue, except as provided in Section 13 of this Act, and shall be valid only for teaching in the first, second and third grades of the primary departments of regularly graded schools or in public kindergartens." After four years of successful teaching under a primary certificate, the state superintendent may make it valid during the life of the holder without further examination. I am urging upon all primary teachers who do not hold this certificate the importance of taking the examination for such certificates at the earliest moment practicable, and I announce for the information of such as may become applicants for this grade of certificate that those who do not hold an unexpired first or second grade certificate, obtained under the uniform examination, will be required to pass a written examination consisting of not less than five questions, which shall be the equivalent of the questions submitted in the uniform examination for second grade certificates, on arithmetic, English grammar, geography, history and composition. No applicant for a primary certificate, it makes no difference what grade of an unexpired certificate she may hold, will be exempt from a written examination in methods and principles. This examination will consist of ten questions so framed as that the answers to the same will show the applicant's knowledge of the theory and art of education, especially as they relate to primary work. In addition to the written examination, each applicant will be required to undergo an oral examination in the presence of the examiners, giving three lessons on subjects taught in the primary department, and outlining and developing her method of teaching each subject. An opportunity for taking this examination will be given each year at the close of the Florida Educational Association, and also at the close of the Teachers' Summer Training School. On account of the great importance of primary work and the strong demand for primary teachers in the state, it is again recommended that every available applicant take this examination at the first opportunity.

THE REVISION OF THE STANDARD COURSE OF STUDY.

At the time of the preparation and adoption of the present Standard Course of Study, it was thought that the require-

ments of the rural graded and high schools had been fully met, but when it was put into operation it was found to be quite inadequate. Especially is this true since the enactment of Chapter 5384, better known as the Buckman Law. This law makes it incumbent upon the state institutions established under its provisions, to enforce certain restrictions as to the entrance requirements of students to the courses they offer. As far as possible, the Standard Course of Study for Rural Graded and High Schools, while having due regard to the education of at least 90 per cent. of the boys and girls who will never be so fortunate as to go to college, should conform to and articulate with the courses of study prescribed by the University of the State of Florida and by the Florida Female College. It is believed that such a revision of the present Standard Course of Study can be made as will be helpful and advantageous to all the boys and girls of the public schools and the colleges. Realizing the necessity of such a revision, an effort was made last summer to have it done, but Section 7 of Chapter 5382 while it authorizes the revision, according to the opinion of the attorney general, does not make an appropriation for the purpose of paying a commission appointed to make the revision, so the effort had to be abandoned for the time. We shall take the matter up again next summer, and we think the money is in sight with which to pay for having the work done.

TEACHERS' SUMMER TRAINING SCHOOLS.

Section 21 of the famous Buckman Law, which for months has run the gauntlet of public opinion, and has but recently stood the test of the Supreme Court, reads as follows: "That all Summer Schools now or that may be hereafter provided for, shall be taught, had and held in and at the University of the State of Florida, and the Board of Control shall make such necessary provisions therefor as shall be requisite or necessary; *provided*, That whenever a Normal Department shall be established at the Female College, a branch of such Summer School may be there located if deemed advisable, and the boards may establish a Summer School for colored teachers at the colored Normal School whenever they shall deem the same necessary."

Under the section quoted, there was established at Gainesville last summer a permanent Summer Training School for white teachers with a corps of nine professionally trained in-

structors. In this school an opportunity will be given for applicants to prepare for all grades of certificates issued under the law. Under the same section, there was established at the colored Normal School, located at Tallahassee, a similar school for the training of colored teachers. On account of greater convenience, from a geographical point of view, the Boards are contemplating the establishment of a branch of the Summer Training School for white teachers at the female college located at Tallahassee.

Our school system, while it is far from being perfect, yet as a whole is quite satisfactory. Chapters 5381 and 5383, by the legislature of 1905, were intended to make better provision for the primary and intermediate schools, while Chapter 5382 was enacted with a view to bettering the condition of the rural graded and high schools, and Chapter 5384, the Buckman Law, had for its exclusive object the raising of the standard and the general improvement of the colleges of the state.

In conclusion I wish to beg your pardon for not having mentioned other phases of the school work, and for having mentioned in only a desultory way those to which I have called your attention, but a lack of time has not permitted me to do more. I wish to say that the outlook for public education in Florida is most encouraging. The people are rapidly realizing that if their children are to be educated they must be properly taught, and to be properly taught they must have competent teachers, and if competent teachers are employed they must be paid.

GEORGIA.

HON. W. B. MERRITT.

The South has awakened. The Sleeping Beauty of the celebrated fairy story must lie in slumber for 100 years ere the Prince comes to kiss life into the inanimate form; but the South has been kissed by Prince Progress ere forty years have passed. Each sister state has responded to the call and an active and spontaneous movement has resulted. Each state has met her particular problems and difficulties and we stand almost shoulder to shoulder in our attainments.

In material advancement and in educational progress the Southern States have advanced with almost even step; cherishing the same traditions and grappling with the same diffi-

culties, our people have solved their common problems largely by the same plans and methods and with the same heroic courage. The educational conditions and the efforts to provide educational advantages for all the children of our Southland have in the several Southern States been very similar, especially during the past forty years. At present we are fighting the same battles, and the discussions of this Association and our other opportunities of conferring with one another upon educational matters make the victories of one the battle cry of all.

"Facts About Southern Educational Progress," compiled by Mr. Chas. L. Coon of Raleigh, N. C., is a most interesting and inspiring little volume. We see that among the Southern States Georgia stands sixth in order as to amount of school fund in 1903, the amount appropriated for each child being \$3.24; for 1904 our school fund, local and state, was about \$3.37 for each child of school age. The amount raised by local taxation in 1904 was \$660,720.00, an amount far in excess of that raised in any year before. The indications are that this amount will be materially increased during 1905.

We see by Mr. Coon's comparative statistics that Georgia ranks third among the Southern States in school attendance, her average being 82 per cent. Just here I have an interesting fact to report in regard to attendance. In Hancock County the experiment has been tried of operating the rural schools for nine months during the year. It was the general opinion that the attendance in the schools would not be kept up during the long term. The experiment has shown that in every school in the county except two the average attendance was higher during each of the nine months than it had been during the short term of five months of previous years.

An increase of \$5.00 or \$10.00 per bale for cotton brings an increased volume of currency into the South. I am pleased to state that our schools are enjoying a large share of our prosperity. The building of school houses is going steadily forward in the rural districts. The number of substantial school houses built, costing from \$15,000.00 to \$20,000.00 for graded and high schools in our towns has been more than usual during the past year. From an authentic source I have an estimate that within the last three months the schools of Georgia have bought 10,000 new desks, one county alone ordering 1,000. I have been impressed as never before with the fact

that a new school building brings not only comfort to the pupils, but renewed interest to both pupils and patrons. The attendance and interest in school work is always better in a well equipped and attractive building. Indeed, one of our County Superintendents informed me that in contests among the pupils of his county the prizes and medals are almost invariably won by pupils who attend school in houses that are painted, well lighted and furnished with comfortable seats.

In 1904, 247 new school houses were built at a cost of \$263,-671.00. Of this number 231 were built in the villages and rural districts at a cost of \$127,721.00, and 16 in the cities and larger towns at a cost of \$135,950.00. The tendency on the part of boards of education is to encourage the building of those school houses only that conform to the demands of modern educational ideas.

By the reason of the consolidation of schools in many counties and of the abandoning of school houses that were not suitable for school purposes, the net gain in the number of school houses in 1904 was only 108. In some of the rural districts in Georgia a few schools have been taught in churches or in other buildings not intended for school purposes. The same causes that lead to the abandoning of many of the unsuitable and unsightly school buildings that have been in use, have lead also to the discontinuing of schools that have been taught in buildings other than school houses. The decrease in the number of schools in 1904 was 126. It must be noted, however, that although there was a decrease in the number of schools, there was an increase in the attendance over the attendance of the preceding year.

The demand for trained teachers, especially for trained male teachers, is increasing. In 1903 there were 2,716 normal trained teachers in Georgia, and in 1904 there were 3,279; an increase of 563 in one year. The increase in salaries has not kept pace with the increase in demand for teachers, although there has been a slight increase in the matter of salaries.

There is one disadvantage which our prosperity brings to the schools. Other lines of business offer attractive salaries to our teachers and have drawn a few of them away from the schoolroom. The patrons are showing their appreciation of the teachers' work by increasing their salaries by subscription, tuition and local taxation.

Years ago the framers of our state constitution made easy

provision for local taxation in our towns and cities which have excellent school systems. In counties the conditions were hard and no provision was made for local taxation in rural school districts. About one year ago the people ratified an amendment to the constitution which permits counties and school districts to levy a local tax if two-thirds of the votes cast are favorable. During the last session of the general assembly the latter part of August, 1905, our general assembly enacted a general law for local taxation in counties or school districts. The question of local taxation is now first in the minds and hearts of our people and we are having an educational revival.

Under the local taxation law enacted at the last session of our General Assembly, there has been an increase in the number of pupils within reach of long term schools supported in part by a local tax. Over twenty school districts have voted a local tax since the adjournment of the General Assembly. In addition to these, two counties have voted a local school tax, and several others will vote on this question during the next month. By the census of 1903 the counties of Hancock and Fulton, which have voted a local tax for the entire county, except for several cities and towns that already had local taxation, showed 13,494 children of school age. As the population has increased since the census was taken it is safe to estimate that in these two counties alone better school facilities will be offered during 1906 to about 15,000 children. In Fulton county election there were only 57 votes against local tax for schools.

Our city schools are rapidly introducing manual training into the curriculum, and the reported results are good. A few of our progressive village and rural schools have introduced a good course of manual training. One of the best reports on this branch of work is from Supt. M. L. Duggan of Hancock County. A statement of this excellent work is published in my annual report for 1904. A skilled teacher gives instruction to all the teachers of the county and the work is carried on in all the schools with enthusiasm. Objection on the part of parents to the children taking manual training in the schools is rare. We are introducing the subject of Agriculture into both city and rural schools, and I find an absorbing interest on the part of pupils and parents in the subject.

The observance of Arbor Day and the work of the School

Improvement Clubs have served as an entering wedge in the work of introducing agriculture in the schools. School Improvement Clubs have done a good work in beautifying school grounds and buildings. In one county last year the children planted over 20,000 trees, vines and plants during Arbor Day season. As Georgia is essentially an agricultural state, this movement to interest our youth in plants and soils and all kinds of vegetable and animal growth is most important and far-reaching in its significance.

We are establishing school libraries rapidly. Our County School Commissioners have taken definite steps in this by declaring themselves heartily in support of such work, and a Committee of Superintendents prepared a list of about 350 library books, arranged according to subjects and grades. On these books we have secured special prices. This Library List has received favorable criticism from the people and the press. I shall be glad to give copies of the Library List to those who wish to see it.

For several years our school officials have been striving with more or less success to consolidate rural schools. Their efforts have been greatly strengthened by the recent law, which requires that school districts be sixteen square miles in area unless natural causes prevent. In a very few counties the area of school districts would average not more than eight square miles. The average for the state has been 12.6 square miles. I believe without exception consolidation of schools has proven satisfactory wherever it has been tried.

We are raising our standards of teaching. Our normal schools are overflowing; our University Summer School is an assured success. We have but to give our teachers an invitation and they quickly avail themselves of every opportunity to improve themselves.

A State Educational Journal has recently been established. The main object of this periodical is to aid in unifying the state work by bringing the school work of all parts of the state to the notice of all teachers, and to faithfully record the history and progress of educational movements in Georgia.

The sentiment of the people is indicated by the newspapers of the state. Georgia has more than 100 weekly papers and numerous dailies, and each and every one of these papers record in almost every issue some educational news. The most skeptical must be convinced of the real interest and even

enthusiasm in school affairs if they read our papers. The following is taken from the Vienna News of Nov. 7, 1905:

"The only way for the rural districts to have as good public schools as the towns and cities is by local taxation.

"The country boy and girl are just as deserving of this advantage as those of the cities and their parents should give it to them.

"With local taxation, good teachers and buildings can be had, and without it they never will be what they ought to be. With such a system of public schools in our rural districts, farm lands would increase in value more than enough to pay the small pittance of tax, and families would remain on the farm to school their children instead of moving to town.

"Let the parents of Dooly move upward and provide this inestimable opportunity for their children, and thereby make farm life more attractive. You can do it if you will only make the effort."

The state agent of the University of Georgia, Prof. J. S. Stewart, is doing valuable service to the cause of education. He is giving valuable aid to educational efforts throughout the state. While he is especially engaged at this time in systematizing the high school work of the state, he is helping to make wholesome sentiment in favor of agricultural education, rural high schools, local taxation, libraries, etc.

These are a few of the indications of our progress very briefly and inadequately told because of lack of time.

In conclusion allow me to say that I earnestly hope that all our Southern States will co-operate with Georgia in a great educational exhibit in the proposed Industrial Exposition to be held in Atlanta in 1910. Exhibits of school work at our county contests in oratory and other branches of school work, and in our county and state fairs, have never failed to arouse great interests and renewed zeal in students and teachers. I cordially invite you to bring exhibits of your school work from kindergarten to college, and place them in the educational exhibit we will have in Atlanta in 1910.

KENTUCKY.

HON. J. H. FUQUA.

In the past year some progress has been made in public education in Kentucky. Quite a number of graded schools have been established in the small towns and country districts, and the state appropriation has been supplemented by funds from local taxation sufficient to meet and equip suitable buildings, and to extend the school terms to nine and ten months. The schools in the rural districts have been lengthened one month, and they are now required by law to be taught six months instead of five. The county superintendents report that the attendance at schools has increased at least 20 per cent. over any previous year. It is noticeable that the apathy and indifference of parents in regard to keeping their children in school, which has prevailed so long, is giving way, and more interest is manifested by them for longer terms and more efficient teachers. The demand for more thorough and better equipped teachers is increasing, and a strong and, I hope, a successful effort will be made during the approaching session of our General Assembly to establish two or more training schools for teachers. This is an imperative necessity, as we have no such schools in the state under state control.

The apportionment by the state for public schools for the year ending June 30, 1904, was \$1,947,165.19 arising from the following sources:

Interest on State Bond.....	\$ 138,755.80
Dividends on Bank Stock.....	6,384.00
License Taxes.....	200,000.00
Railroad Taxes.....	151,765.00
State Banks.....	17,544.00
Miscellaneous Corporations.....	41,180.00
Fines and Forfeitures.....	8,788.00
Distilled Spirits.....	32,907.00
Miscellaneous Receipts.....	4,913.00
Tax on Rectifiers.....	8,925.00
Revenue on Real and Personal Property.....	1,448,355.00
Total	\$2,059,566.80
Less Overdraft for Preceding Year.....	112,401.61
Net Amount Expended.....	\$1,947,165.19

The amount appropriated for the school year ending June 30th, 1905, from these sources was \$2,159,082.42.

The amount for the school year ending June 30, 1906, is \$2,420,879.80.

The increase for the year ending June 30, 1905, over that of the year ending June, 30, 1904, was \$211,917.23, and of the year ending June 30, 1906, over the preceding year was \$261,797.38.

The per capita per pupil for the year ending June 30, 1904, was \$2.60. For the year ending June 30, 1905, it was \$2.95, and for the year ending June 30, 1906, it is \$3.25.

It will thus be seen that the state's apportionment for educational purposes is increasing more rapidly than the school population.

Realizing that something should be done to add a stimulus to the cause, last May I called together in Frankfort about 100 friends of education from different sections of the state to take counsel together. It was the unanimous consent of those present that many things are necessary to make our public schools more efficient and better able to accomplish the task set before them. Among the necessities are consolidation of weak schools, better houses, grounds and equipments; longer terms, more efficient and better paid teachers, and training schools for teachers. A committee was appointed to meet with the Kentucky Educational Association in June at Mammoth Cave. The Kentucky Educational Association heartily approved of the suggestions of the committee, and the state was organized for an educational campaign. A committee of three prominent men from each congressional district was appointed to organize and stir up the friends throughout the counties and an executive committee of five, with headquarters at Frankfort, was appointed to prepare and circulate literature throughout the state, and to secure speakers and have addresses made in every county in the state.

This work will begin soon, and we are hoping to see our people aroused as they never have been before. Our motto is: Never cease agitation until every boy and girl in the commonwealth shall have the means and opportunity of securing an education that will in a measure fit him or her for a useful and successful life.

LOUISIANA.

HON. JAMES B. ASWELL.

PUBLIC SCHOOL FINANCES, 1904.

Receipts.

Balance Jan. 1, 1904.....	\$ 214,298 49
Current school fund	500,960 27
Poll tax	174,515 15
Police jury tax	358,545 27
Corporation tax	473,356 03
Rental from school lands	25,874 86
Sixteenth section interest	59,321 93
Special school tax	90,403 00
From other sources	157,805 71
Total resources for 1904.....	\$2,055,090 71

Disbursements.

Teachers' salaries—white	1,193,363 80
Teachers' salaries—colored	159,520 53
Rents and repairs	63,184 58
Building and furnishing school houses	84,010 76
Superintendents' salaries	47,477 07
Treasurers' commissions	25,630 34
Per diem of parish boards	5,814,60
Assessors' commissions	13,101 96
Tax collectors' commissions	15,327 76
Incidental expenses	150,512 39
Total disbursements for 1904.....	1,757,943 79
Balance on hand	\$ 297,136 92

MISCELLANY.

Value of school houses built in 1904.....	\$ 178,868 89
Estimated value of school property.....	3,396,319 08
Number of school houses built in 1904.....	125
Number of school houses in use.....	3,942

STATISTICAL REPORT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS, 1904.

Number of white schools	2,433
Number of colored schools	1,107
Total number of schools	3,540
Number of pupils enrolled—white males	70,020
Number of pupils enrolled—white females	68,777
Number of pupils enrolled—colored males	34,372
Number of pupils enrolled—colored females	38,240
Total white and colored	211,409
Average attendance—white	91,775
Average attendance—colored	48,458
Total attendance	140,233
Number of teachers employed—white males	712
Number of teachers employed—white females	2,624
Number of teachers employed—colored males	380
Number of teachers employed—colored females	578
Total teachers, white and colored	4,314

Average salary per month—white males	\$53 09
Average salary per month—white females	\$38 03
Average salary per month—white males and females below high school	\$36 99
Average salary per month—colored males	\$28 62
Average salary per month—colored females	\$24 99
Length of session—white (7 months).....	140 days
Length of session—colored (4½ months)	140 days
Number of normal graduates employed	1,059
Number of first grade teachers employed	1,952
Number of educables—white, 241,906; colored, 217,690.....	459,596
Number in school—public and private reported.....	225,990
Number of districts having local tax	199
Number of districts voting local tax in 1904	46

STATISTICAL REPORT OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS, 1904.

Number of white schools reported, 221	
Number of colored schools reported, 36	
Number of white school teachers reported, 431	
Number of colored schoolteachers reported, 141	
Number of white pupils	9,691
Number of colored pupils	4,890
Total number of pupils—white and colored.....	14,581

MARYLAND.

HON. BATES STEPHENS.

Enough has been said already to convince even the skeptical that public education in the states of the South has been going in leaps and bounds during the past decade. If there ever was a time in the history of the commonwealths whose educational matters come within the scope of the work of this Association, when educators and those interests of which they are the immediate custodians were sleeping, certainly it is not now; for earnestness, movement, vitality and action have characterized all the utterances we have heard, and progress in all the essentials which make up a comprehensive school system has been the keynote of every speech which has been made at this splendid session.

I am more than glad to say to you that Maryland has caught the spirit of this educational awakening of which we have heard so much today, and which is destined to sweep the "Sunny South;" and I bring to you from that state the greetings and good wishes of more than five thousand school officials and teachers who are as earnest and faithful workers as were ever enlisted in any educational crusade. They want it understood that they have buckled on the full armor of firm resolve

and resolute purpose, and there will be no flagging of interest, no waning of faith, no entangling alliances, no compromise with the enemy's forces, and no cessation of effort until every gun unfriendly to a thorough and efficient school system has been silenced, school appropriations made sufficiently large to provide ample school facilities and pay capable teachers, who have been appropriately styled "the true guardians of the state," adequate compensation and to guarantee to every child of school age what should be its birthright, at least a primary school education.

Taking our viewpoint as a representative of her school system, Maryland has made history rapidly during the past two years. It is a true saying that the advancement of a community in all the essential elements of growth is measured by the intelligence and virtue of its people and that of all the factors which enter into such development, the public school is perhaps the most important and influential. This opinion is more largely shared in our state than ever before. The year 1902 marked a distinct revival of interest in public school matters. During that year there was a large exodus of capable and experienced teachers from our ranks. Startling reports came from various sections of the state that leading teachers were leaving their school rooms and were accepting employment with insurance companies, banking and business institutions where compensation was far more attractive. Scarcely a county escaped the ravages of this influence, and hundreds of our best teachers entered other fields of service. Paradoxical as it may sound, this wholesale withdrawal of so many good teachers was the best thing which could have happened—a sort of blessing in disguise. People are educated slowly by argument, but quickly by events. This event did what a quarter of a century of argument had failed to do; for school officers and teachers had urged the people to extend educational facilities and perfect school work in order that the education and training our schools should give might meet and satisfy the new conditions of our civilization. By this incident they were quickly educated as regarded their responsibility to that agency which was instituted as a counterpart to our republican form of government and inaugurated to place useful and intelligent citizenship on a higher plane of excellence. People were ready to act and the educational forces of the state seized the opportunity. The general election was approaching. A

plank favoring better schools by pledging larger school appropriations was inserted in each platform of the two leading parties. Legislative committees were appointed for the various counties, and candidates were asked to state their position and to declare what would be their attitude on this question if elected. A committee of eleven school officials revised and re-wrote the whole school law; scarcely a section thereof remained untouched. It contained all that these school men thought was reasonable to request; and that bill was passed practically without amendment, receiving a large majority in each branch of the General Assembly, and there was not then or since even the semblance of a charge that its passage was brought about by dishonorable means or by indirect methods.

It increased the state school appropriation 43 per cent., guaranteed a uniform school year for the whole state of not less than nine months, and made provision for the following features:

1. A minimum salary of not less than three hundred dollars for all white teachers whose average attendance was not less than fifteen pupils.
2. A system of accredited high schools with annual inspection.
3. The privilege of establishing a manual training school and an industrial colored school in each county, with an annual appropriation of fifteen hundred dollars for each, which amount is not charged to the school tax.
4. A pension fund of \$25,000 for disabled teachers who are sixty years old and with a teaching experience of twenty-five years.
5. The establishing of three state normal schools for white and one for colored students under the supervision of the state school authorities.
6. Protection against the dismissal of teachers except for cause, and the right of appeal by the teacher to the county school board.
7. Minority representation on all state and county school boards.
8. A course of study based upon the recommendations of the reports of the committees of ten and fifteen, and many other beneficial features which a lack of time prevents me from naming. Should our next legislature pass a compulsory school law for the whole state, as now seems probable, the Maryland

school law will contain about all the fundamental requisites of a complete system.

These facts are recited to show that the past year has been one of adjusting ourselves to these better conditions since the new system has been in operation, but little more than a year. Nearly half a million dollars more has been spent for schools than in any preceding year; the salaries of two thousand teachers have been increased; the teaching standard has been raised in at least one-third of the counties; the school year has been lengthened from seven and one-half to nine months in eight counties; the membership of the State Teachers' Reading Circle has nearly doubled, until now about one thousand teachers of the counties are identified with this effective agency for professional betterment; a state school journal has been started with good prospects of success; manual training centers have been established in twenty of our twenty-three counties, and three counties have recently appointed supervisors of primary school methods to supplement the supervisory work of the county superintendents.

Because of these improved conditions in school administration made possible by larger school revenues and a healthier school sentiment our teachers feel more secure in their positions, because they are in no wise dependent on political or other ulterior pulls for appointment or promotion; are reaching out toward higher ideals in education and teaching, and are happier than ever before.

MISSOURI.

HON. W. T. CARRINGTON, State Superintendent of Missouri.

It is difficult to make definite statements in designating elements of progress in school work, especially when attempting to limit such progress to one year. In the first place, what is attributed to one cause may be due to many and may have had its origin further back in past events. Again, that which may appear to be progress may, on further test, prove lacking in elements of real progress. In other words, all educational activity is not progress and much substantial progress does not have outward signs of such character as to be readily recognized.

Everything else equal we may logically measure progress by the material prosperity of a community and by the community's

willingness to contribute a due proportion of its material increase to the cause of education. For the current year, so far as relates to the common schools of Missouri, there is a five per cent. increase in state apportionment of school moneys; about 10 per cent. increase in assessed valuation of property and 6 per cent. increase in the rate of levy for school purposes. Combined, these give 16 2-3 per cent. increase. Considering the increase in enrolment in these schools 10 per cent., and the daily attendance 20 per cent., due to the compulsory attendance law enacted in 1905 which became operative last June, the per capita expenditure on enrolment will be somewhat larger and on daily attendance just a little less than last year. All this shows decided progress. In some communities, however, it operates in the other direction. Whenever the increase in enrolment and attendance has been out of proportion to the increase in funds, the actual results of the work in the schools are disappointing. Especially is this true of some of the cities and towns. Many towns have been compelled to postpone an active enforcement of the compulsory attendance law for lack of room and teaching force to take care of the children.

The extension of the public school work during the past year has been more in erecting new and more sanitary buildings, and providing more school rooms and teachers and better equipment in the elementary graded and rural schools, than it has been in raising salaries of teachers and in increasing length of term or in providing high school opportunities; yet there has been perceptible increase in all of these.

The average length of term in all the public schools of the state has increased from 148 days to 151 days and the average salary from \$322 to \$338. The number of first class high schools has increased from 45 to 62. Eighteen high schools have moved up from the third class to the second class. Thus has the number of high schools maintaining twelve units or more of approved work increased from 110 to 128 within the year. The increase in the amount of approved work in the smaller high schools has been in about the same ratio.

Four consolidated districts have been formed and as many good high schools have been organized where none existed before. High schools develop in Missouri. They do not spring into existence full grown. Progress along this line is found in small high schools growing into larger and better ones. Schools having two or more teachers and offering only a few

high school subjects one year, are able to offer two years of high school work the next year when they operate in harmony with the recommendations set forth in the revised course of study. Year by year the number of schools doing approved high school work increases. This progress is due largely to the work of the assistant state superintendent whose special work is to inspect and classify the smaller high schools of the state.

Not many Missouri high schools have really been organized within the year, but there are at least fifty schools worthy to be put in the third class that were short of that a year ago. It is very encouraging to be able to show this and at the same time know that this progress has not been at the sacrifice of the work in the lower grades. Indeed, growth in the high school work stimulates the work in all grades below. The system is so articulated as to prevent top-heaviness found in other states.

Six years ago, the state superintendent issued a course of study for the elementary rural and graded schools emphasizing both practical and cultural subjects and showing how to attain both results. That work has been stressed in every possible way since. Four years ago, the library movement took definite form and proved to be a great help in focusing school sentiment in favor of systematic and aggressive work along new lines embracing culture and nature subjects. Two years ago, a law was enacted providing for the inspection and classification of high schools. The state department at that time issued a high school course of study in which were set forth the conditions for approval. This, coupled with the movement to consolidate districts, has developed the sentiment, well nigh unanimous, that the high school is a necessary part of the school work and that the good effect exerted by it upon the lower grades more than pays the cost of maintaining it in any community.

During the year, these three separate and most effective movements have been correlated. The state superintendent a few months ago issued in one bulletin a revised course of study for the graded and rural schools, a revised high school curriculum, including conditions upon which high school work will be approved, and a recommended list of library books. While not voluminous, it is complete and sets excellent standards of work to be attained. Progress made in this connection is along psychological and pedagogical lines more than in the number of schools, number of pupils, excellence of school buildings and

adequate equipments. This work of the state department is not an initial movement. It gathers and voices the general tendencies and records the progress made. It persists in season and often out of season in harmonizing and unifying all parts of the system.

The state superintendent believes in the doctrine that the greatest stimuli come from above, that our colleges, normal and technical schools and universities have great influence in determining the character of the work of the high schools and academies and they, in turn, exert great influence on the elementary rural and graded schools. In harmony with this doctrine, it must be considered a decided progress for the year when our higher institutions, more especially our state university, announce that they will recognize for entrance requirements high school courses in agriculture, horticulture and manual training.

Perhaps the most conspicuous progress for the year has been in the expansion in the state educational institutions. Our state university has planned for larger and better things in every department. The last general assembly appropriated out of the state treasury for maintenance and betterments in its different departments \$850,000. This is about three times the amount appropriated for the same purposes six years ago.

The four old, established state normal schools (three for white and one for colored teachers have increased in capacity materially. New buildings have been erected for each, old buildings remodeled, faculties increased and salaries raised. The appropriations made for these four institutions this year aggregate \$622,000. The appropriations for the same purpose six years ago amounted to \$132,000.

In addition to these, the state has established two new normal schools at Springfield and Maryville. These institutions will open about the first of June, 1906. The teacher makes the school. The efficiency of any system of schools is determined by the character and devotion of the teaching corps. Measured by this, Missouri has just laid the foundation for most substantial progress.

The Teachers' College at the State University has been so organized as to attract large patronage. It now has hundreds of pupils, when formerly it had only dozens. The city of St. Louis has established a high grade teachers' college, erected and equipped one of the best buildings for that purpose in the

country and organized it on a high plane to provide that city with college-bred and specially prepared teachers for all departments of the city school system.

The number of state institutions maintained for training teachers has been increased from four to eight and the average daily attendance at the four older institutions has in six years increased from 1,357 to 2,275. Six years ago these institutions were in session 190 days to the year. They are now in session 240 days. The amount of actual work with teachers and prospective teachers has grown from 25,783 days' attendance to 54,600 days' attendance. Owing to changes in having summer terms at the state normals, the character of the work is much better also. Many experienced teachers, college and academy graduates, attend these summer sessions. The attendance is also larger then. Had we the means of determining it, we would find an ever advancing standard of preparation in the teaching corps.

Taking it all in all, it is believed that educational progress in the state is keeping pace with the rapid development of material resources. Such progress is not confined to the public schools and state institutions. Missouri has many high grade private and denominational institutions. They are well attended and do their share of the work of building up an intelligent, prosperous, liberty-loving and law-abiding citizenship.

NORTH CAROLINA.

HON. J. Y. JOYNER.

School Fund—

Total school fund for 1905, \$1,927,850.92.

An increase of \$150,226.19 over 1904.

Local Taxation—

Amount raised by local taxation as reported (incomplete), \$320,510.85.

Increase over 1904 of \$105,063.60.

This is less than the real amount, as some districts have not yet reported.

Total number of local tax districts reported to date, 322.

Total number of tax districts established November 1904, to November 1905, 107.

In 92 districts reporting votes cast, 4,625 were for tax; 1,078 against.

In 18 districts no votes were cast against tax.

In 29 districts reporting value school property before and after tax—before, \$18,175.00; after, \$67,120.00.

31 districts reported rate voted.

In 10 districts it ranged from 10 cents to 22 cents.

In 6 districts it was 25 cents.

In 15 districts it was 30 cents.

In 58 districts reporting no children there were 12,196.

Thirty-one districts reported length term before and after.

Nineteen districts reported term doubled.

Two districts reported number increase in term already 36 weeks.

GENERALIZATION FROM STATISTICS ON LOCAL TAXATION.

The idea is taking root in every section of the state, object lessons in local taxation being located in 78 of the 97 counties, scattered from the eastern to the western border and from the northern to the southern border. Its growth in popularity is indicated by the large number of local tax districts established this year and by the large majorities cast for the tax.

LOAN FUND.

November 1904, November 1905.

Loans made, \$58,547.

Value of old buildings, \$25,581.

Value of new buildings, \$147,784.

Number of districts aided, 180.

Number of new buildings erected, 122.

Number of buildings improved or enlarged, 58.

These loans are made to the counties for districts for the erection of new school buildings and the improvement of old ones. Not more than half the value of the new buildings or of the repairs is loaned to any district. The loans are payable in ten annual installments and draw four per cent. interest, payable annually. The loan fund was established in 1903. To date, \$180,793.00 have been loaned and new buildings valued at \$482,541.00 have been erected with the aid of this fund. This loan fund is a permanent building fund, increasing at the rate of four per cent. a year, one-tenth of the fund, the interest being available each year. This fund will be increased annually also by the proceeds of all sales of swamp lands. These sales during the past two years have amounted

to about \$20,000.00. Many other new buildings have been erected without aid from the loan fund, as will appear from the number of new houses built.

HOUSES.

Number of new houses reported built in 1905, 438, an increase of 94 over last year. The average cost of the houses built this year is: White, \$414.57; colored, \$232.73. During the past four years more than 1,200 new school houses have been built. These houses are built in accordance with plans adopted and sent out from the office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. The plans conform to modern principles of school architecture as to light, ventilation, etc. There is continual growth in public demand for better houses and more of them. The applications for loans are limited only by the available funds. At the present rate of increase through the aid of the loan fund and local taxation, it ought to be possible to have a comfortable modern public school house within reach of every child in the state within a few years.

RURAL LIBRARIES.

New libraries established during the year, 289.

Supplementary libraries established during the year, 142.

Amount expended, \$10,800.

Number of volumes, 30,000.

Total libraries in the state, 1,203.

Total amount expended, \$40,000.

Total number of volumes, 100,000.

Only 500 new libraries are available during each period of two years. The rural library act was passed in 1901. Persistent efforts were required to get the districts to take the available number during the first several years. The number of new libraries available to each county is limited to six. Now in most counties no effort is required to get the libraries taken and the demand is for more libraries than the law provides for. In a number of counties many libraries have been established by private subscription without state aid. At the present rate of increase and the growth in popularity of the rural library movement, it ought to be possible to have a rural library in every public school within the next ten or fifteen years. The books for these libraries must be selected from a list prepared and approved by the State Superintendent of

Public Instruction and sent out in pamphlet form. A record book is furnished to every library by the state superintendent and annual reports to his office are required.

In addition to the progress of the year in local taxation, improvement of public school houses, rural libraries, as indicated by the above statistics, there has been marked improvement in county supervision, the salary of county superintendents has been increased, all county superintendents are required to spend a reasonable time in visiting their schools and are devoting more time than ever before to the work of supervision. In many counties, in fact, in nearly all of the larger and wealthier counties, the superintendent is giving all of his time to the work. The average salary of the county superintendent has been more than doubled during the past three years. I believe that there is continuous, safe and encouraging growth in public sentiment for education, in public confidence in schools, in public demand for better houses, better teachers, better supervision, longer terms and more money to supply these educational necessities.

IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS.

A number of bulletins have been issued from the office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction prepared carefully by a trained and experienced professional teacher on the teaching of the various subjects in the public school course. The purpose of these teachers' bulletins has been to provide a means of home study for teachers desiring to improve themselves professionally. The bulletins have been in great demand and have proved very helpful.

COUNTY INSTITUTES.

The county institute work has been reorganized under an amendment to the school law. The appropriation for this work has been increased. The work has been systematized. A continuous and progressive course of study to be pursued in the institute has been arranged and issued in bulletin form and placed in the hands of the teachers. The institutes are conducted by trained and professional teachers.

COURSE OF STUDY AND GRADATION.

A full and complete course of study for the first seven grades has been prepared and issued in bulletin form. This bulletin has been placed in the hands of every public school

teacher. County superintendents have been requiring the gradation of the work in the schools in accordance with this course of study. It is hoped that the work of the public schools throughout the entire state will be systematized and graded in a short while.

NORTH CAROLINA DAY.

North Carolina Day is growing in popularity and has been more generally celebrated this year than ever before. Thirty thousand copies of the pamphlet containing the program have been distributed. The celebration of this day in the public schools is proving very successful in cultivating a proper North Carolina spirit and in arousing an interest in the study of state history.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

HON. O. B. MARTIN, State Superintendent of South Carolina.

I received several admonitions from the officers of this Association that my report should be brief. In fact, when the last notice and program were received I said: It shall be as brief as the marriage ceremony of a certain magistrate in my State. The whole procedure is as follows: "Have'r? Yes. Have'm? Yes. Married—\$2." However, it is impossible to give any adequate idea of educational progress in quite so few words. One is so gratified at every symptom and evidence of educational growth and development, that he is tempted to make a detailed report. He finds himself somewhat in the position of the young lady who sat upon the portico with her lover, on a beautiful starlit night in summer. He claimed a kiss for every falling meteor and shooting star. This did all right until she began to mistake the swinging of the lanterns at the railroad station for meteors, and until she claimed that every lightning bug was a falling star. So in our work we feel that every educational light in whatever remote district of darkest ignorance, is a meteor and a beacon leading on to better things. It is understood, ladies and gentlemen, that these state superintendents who hold the boards this morning are reflectors of the educational light which gleams from every part of our beloved Southland.

In a brief report of a County Superintendent a few days ago, I received an epitome which I wish to commend to every school official whose duty it is to supervise, to encourage and

to develop. This Superintendent has 128 schools under his care. He reported: “* * * We have erected seven new buildings, two of which cost \$12,000 each. In these districts we floated bonds. We have repaired and refurnished many of our old buildings and made improvements on the grounds. In eleven districts we voted extra levies, and we have several other districts about ready to do likewise. * * * We had seventy-five trustees at the last meeting of our Trustees' Association. We have two Teachers' Associations that are active. We established thirty libraries and increased six of those established last year. In fact, we have made some material improvement in every district.”

The last statement to me is very significant. There is not a dormant school in all the confines of that great county. In every community there is growth and advancement. This should be a normal condition. A school should be a living organization. It must grow or it will decay and die.

A few statistics will give an idea of our work in South Carolina during the past year. We enrolled 10,000 more children than we did the year before. Our total enrolment is now 302,000. Our total receipts were \$1,680,000, a gain of more than \$100,000. Nearly a quarter of a million was raised by extra taxes. Forty-six additional districts voted levies this year. We have established more than 600 libraries during the past eighteen months. During the past scholastic year our white schools increased the average length of session from 23.9 to 27 weeks. The negro schools increased from 14 to 16 weeks. We built more than 200 buildings, some of which were excellent. The average salary of white teachers increased from \$226 per year to \$233 per year. Three thousand four hundred of our teachers attended summer schools and worked for self improvement. We have recently planned a Teachers' Reading Circle Course, and it is being read by County Associations and town and city classes, as well as by numerous individuals. The enrolment in every college increased this year, and we have several instances of corresponding increase in resources and facilities. In fact, I might go on at length in a recitation of evidences of progress, but I was warned to be brief. If I should continue, I should remind you of the young man's dream. He dreamt that he ascended to heaven on a ladder, but that at every rung he must take a piece of chalk and write on the wall the name of a sin which had been for-

given. He climbed until he thought he must be near the pearly gates, when he met his father, who had been dead for forty years. He asked his father what was the matter and why he came down. The reply was, "More chalk." I cannot continue without more talk, more time and more patience.

TENNESSEE.

HON. SEYMOUR A. MYNDERS, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

The program calls for a report of the progress of schools in Tennessee for the current year. As the statistics for the annual report are now being compiled in the Department of Public Instruction, and the work is not far enough advanced to give accurate figures for this year, I have deemed it advisable to report in a general way for the year 1905, and to give accurate statistics for the year 1904.

Particular attention has been paid the past two years to a campaign for education among the people of the state. The points urged in this campaign have been better teachers, better attendance, increased rate of taxation, better buildings, and consolidation and grading of the district schools. In this campaign men of all professions have aided. It has been efficiently led by Prof. Claxton, and by the Southern Educational Board. I attribute the improvements which I shall report largely to the success of this campaign.

The year 1903 showed an average term of the rural schools of the state of 93 days; the year 1904 showed 103 days and I am satisfied that the report now being compiled for the year ending 1905 will show at least 117 days.

An act of the legislature of 1903 sought to consolidate the weak schools by the passage of an act prohibiting directors from maintaining a school with under 70 scholastic population, except where pupils would have to walk over two and one-half miles or where there are natural barriers. Much difficulty was experienced in enforcing the law but it is gradually becoming more popular and directors are beginning to observe it more closely.

As a result of the act, I estimate that over 1,000 schools have been consolidated.

The enrollment of the schools has been increased about 50,000; the increased interest and confidence in our public school system is best shown from the fact that in 1902 there

were only 7,852 pupils enrolled in the eighth grade and above. In 1904 there were enrolled in these grades 16,014, or an increase of over 103 per cent. The report of the present year will show over 20,000. The report of 1902 shows 829 certificates issued to pupils completing the secondary schools while the report for the year 1904 shows 1,774. The new report will show over 2,000.

The great problem of public schools in the south is that of more money. We have made decided advance in this direction, but have not yet reached the point where we have sufficient funds to properly maintain the schools. The state has increased its appropriation \$300,000 a year with a provision that \$50,000 be used to help counties unable to run their schools six months without it. This increase on the part of the state was met by an increase from counties and municipalities of \$376,023.29, and I believe that we will show this year a still greater increase from the latter sources. In the year 1904 nearly \$500,000 was spent for new buildings, mostly in the country districts.

We have been making a special effort to improve the efficiency of our teaching force and while we have no compulsory law for institute attendance, we had the past summer about 80 per cent. of our teachers in institutes and summer schools. County Superintendents were instructed to exercise special care in examining and licensing teachers and as a result about 1,200 former teachers were refused certificates.

We are now confronted with a different problem of securing sufficient teachers for the rural schools. We are trying to solve this problem in part by the establishment of county high schools. Eleven counties have recently made provision for such schools and a large number of counties now have the matter under advisement.

WEST VIRGINIA.

HON. THOS. C. MILLER, West Virginia.

In some tables of comparative statistics issued from the Department of Schools in West Virginia each year some interesting facts are presented. From the time the public school system was established there has been a gradual growth, but within recent years the progress has been much more rapid. Last year 7,597 teachers were employed, the enumeration of school youth was 332,862, and the total amount expended for

all educational purposes was \$3,258,224, being \$9.79 per capita based upon the government's estimate of the state's population of school youth, and \$3.06 per capita of the total population, in 1903. It will be remembered that the average expenditure in the United States was \$3.15 per capita for that year.

At this time it may be said that the most encouraging feature of our educational work is an awakened public sentiment with respect to school affairs generally. This is manifested in many places in larger salaries for teachers, in a lengthened school term, in better school buildings and better school equipment. While, of course, these physical conditions do not, of themselves, make good schools, they contribute very largely to that end, and I am pleased to report very decided progress in this respect. Within the last two years there have been completed, or there are now in process of construction, as many as ten school buildings, costing from \$40,000 to \$100,000 each, the average price being about \$55,000. Not only are our towns and cities putting up better buildings, but out in country districts modern structures with the latest and best equipment are being erected.

Our school term is yet altogether too short. While the average for the last year is about six and one-half months, this average is reached by including the longer terms of the towns and independent districts of the state. Too large a proportion of our youth, probably about one-half, have only the five months minimum term provided by law. However, a very strong effort will be made before the next legislature to extend this minimum requirement to six or possibly seven months. As intimated above, many of our cities and independent districts have eight, nine and ten months school.

It is believed that our new revenue system will very materially increase our school funds, and if this hope is realized we shall be better prepared to pay larger salaries, and have a longer term.

Desiring to reach our taxpayers and leading citizens generally, and patterning after our good friends in North Carolina, Virginia and Tennessee, this year we have been carrying on a series of educational campaigns which, I am glad to report, have been productive of much good. About ten weeks were devoted to this work, and we had with us such educational leaders as Hon. W. W. Stetson of Maine, Dr. A. E. Winship of Massachusetts, Dr. R. G. Boone of New York, Supt. O. J.

Kern of Illinois, and Supt. Cap E. Miller of Iowa. In addition to these workers from a distance, we had the assistance of several members of our University faculty, among them the honored president, Dr. Purinton, whom you have heard today. Meetings were held in different parts of the state, the attendance varying according to the locality, but I estimate that, including the schools visited, about thirty thousand persons heard these addresses. In many places in country regions the speakers were most enthusiastically received, basket dinners being provided and a whole day's program arranged for. Indeed, the attention and earnestness of the people living in the country districts was one of the most delightful features of the campaign, and many very encouraging reports have been received relative to these tours in the interior of the state.

The uniform system of examinations introduced three years ago has undoubtedly resulted in giving us a better class of teachers. The standard has been raised only gradually, and, while some have left the ranks because they were unable to reach the requirements, others have been stimulated to greater effort, and have thus prepared themselves for more efficient service in the school room. At first the new system was not so well received, and it required a good deal of tact and careful dealing with the problems presented to overcome the adverse sentiment, but now both teachers and patrons unite in saying that it has brought to us much of good. One thing that the new system has accomplished is worth all the effort. It has done away with favoritism in the granting of certificates, also the possibility of purchasing the same. It is rather humiliating even to hint that such things were heretofore possible, but, I suppose, you who are farther south are not without such experiences, as human nature is about the same everywhere.

The attendance at the West Virginia University is steadily increasing, the enrolment last year exceeding eleven hundred. Many of these young men and women become teachers, and the influence of their training is felt throughout the state. Some of our best superintendents and principals are graduates of the University, which has a regular Department of Education. Our normal schools, six in number, with an enrolment of about eighteen hundred, are also doing good work in preparing teachers for our graded and city schools, while the high schools send their graduates into the district schools.

In some parts of the state we have a slight shortage of teachers this year, but it is believed that with larger salaries and longer terms these vacancies will not hereafter occur.

Further encouragement is found in the fact that school libraries are multiplying all over the state. These are not confined to the towns and cities, but in the country districts good collections of books are found. Last year 30,000 volumes were added to these district libraries, and on December 8th, which has been designated as Library Day, when a special effort will be made, it is expected that this number will be more than doubled, which will bring the number of volumes up to considerably over 100,000 in the district libraries. It should be remembered that this does not include town and city school libraries, whose shelves probably now contain nearly 200,000 volumes. These district libraries are usually secured by the enterprise of the teacher.

Another encouraging feature of our educational progress is a manifest desire on the part of the teachers for self-improvement. This is shown by their interest in the Reading Circle Course and in the Round Table work at the district institutes. A larger number of teachers is enrolled today in the Reading Circles than ever before, the number reaching about 2,500, and the interest in the Round Table meetings shows that the teachers are desiring better things. Our compulsory attendance law is also working well.

Upon the whole, I think we have made considerable progress, but it has been more in the nature of foundation-building than of work on the superstructure. Within the next two or three years I believe our educational advancement will be much more rapid. With this end in view we expect the next legislature to provide for a longer school term, a system of district high schools, the consolidation of country schools, and an adequate system of district supervision, all of which we think will be realized through an enlightened and progressive public sentiment.

THE FOURTH PROFESSION.

PRESIDENT JAMES E. AMENT, State Normal School, Warrensburg, Mo.

To one who views the world from a teleological standpoint, there is an ultimate purpose in every existing fact. The ultimate, evolutionary purpose of the imposition of labor upon mankind is the more complete development of the individual to the point where he recognizes the ego with sufficient differentiation to perpetuate that differentiation and maintain individuality in a state of existence where labor in its present form is absent and the limitations of animal existence are removed. A passive existence for humanity would mean a static existence. Man rises to the dignity of his sphere through mastery of Nature's laws, and his interest in, and consequent mastery of, these laws is a corollary of the necessity of labor.

But labor has its immediate as well as its ultimate purpose, and the mass of the world's workers, unconscious of teleological purpose, labor for immediate ends alone. We may, without reference to primal substance, think of work as creative energy, and the immediate object of man's labor as the creations of his directed energy. Such is productive labor, and the labor of primitive man first took this form in its simplest phase; the object of every worker was food, which doubtless had to be produced directly and wholly by each grown individual for himself. The principle of the division of labor, which makes the broad distinction of directly-productive and indirectly-productive labor, was unknown; and if known, could not have been applied for want of a system of exchange, however crude. Nothing but dire necessity could have changed this primitive condition and purpose of labor. The idea of service has been of slow growth. Originally each tub had to stand solely upon its own bottom. Generally a man could get done for himself only what he was able to do himself; but even in his pristine vigor, his body was a prey to disease, which occasionally rendered him unable to do for himself. His necessity gradually developed the physician, whose differentiation, however, as a specialist in the world's work was painfully slow. The history of medicine contains many a chapter of darkest superstition, and much of the better part of it, were it not so serious, would be little more laughable. Multiplied efforts gradually disclosed some of the principles that underlie the physician's work, and his knowledge became so ordered and arranged that he

could lay fair claim to its constituting a science. He has, however, by no means reached the Mount Sinai of his profession where he will receive laws from on high; yet he stands out among the world's workers, today, a specialist, constituting with his co-workers a learned profession.

It may be noted that the physician's work sprang out of a necessity universally felt, for any man is liable to sickness and to the need of the physician's service. Some work can be performed by anybody passably well, but the knowledge required for the physician's work gradually grew and became differentiated to that degree that it required special application for its mastery. Slowly through the ages this requirement increased, as the underlying principles of medicine disclosed themselves, and the knowledge of the profession took on system, and made rightful claim to be dignified by the name of science. Speaking in very general terms, its underlying principles are those of chemistry, physiology and psychology. Among the earliest universities is that of Salerno, whose chief business was the education of the physician for the practice of his profession.

Fundamentally, man is a social being, and as he advanced in civilization and consequent social life, increasing complexity made law a necessity. It is not meant that a time came when the race suddenly awoke to the need of legislation and law. Law is a growth, coming gradually with its felt necessity. In the philosophy of law, it is defined as "the rational ordering of the peace of a human community." This does not recognize law as a directly divine gift, but as a form of procedure based in human reason; it, therefore, finds its rational principle in justice. As laws multiplied and required the mastery of a specialized body of knowledge in order to their just application in all particulars, the lawyer became a necessity, and was early differentiated from the great body of citizens, as a specialist. The legal practitioners thus came to constitute a profession, and one of those nascent universities, that at Bologna, first outlined against the interesting background of the twelfth century, gave its energies to the teaching of law. The profession of law, like that of medicine, sprang from necessity, and soon required for its intelligent practice a body of specialized knowledge, so ordered and arranged as to constitute a science.

It is hardly necessary to show in detail that the theological profession had its origin and rise in the same manner as the other two learned professions. More subtle than they, it took

its rise from the felt necessity of a mediator between man and God—a universal feeling, springing from a knowledge of man's dependence, his finite character, and his undying hope ever to approach the perfection of the Infinite. Like the other professions, theology founded its university among the earliest, and the teaching of theology was long the main business of the University of Paris.

Law, Medicine, and Theology—these were the three professions, and for centuries all learning seemed conserved for this venerable trinity. No one other than those of these "learned" professions, seemed to require learning. No general necessity arose, to call into being another profession. No thought of general education as a practical necessity had come to the world. The simple ways of obtaining a livelihood required but small mental development. Those were not the days of labor-saving machinery requiring intelligence for its management; those were not the days of steam and electricity. They were the days of hand labor, mostly crude—days when man's knowledge of the earth itself was confined to a very limited area, beyond whose bounds his superstitious imagination placed a grotesque and unthinkable universe. Besides the professions, the governing classes were educated for their day; but for the great masses who had no part in the government, education was unthought of. The world was moving along on apparently fixed lines, that seemed to have no curves to its inhabitants; conditions appeared to be settled for all time.

But the world-historical spirit was operative, and though moving spirally, was ever moving upward and onward. It was the age of Scholasticism—the science of mediaeval times. Science, as we know it, could hardly be said to exist. Yet, scholasticism had its ultimate purpose for good: it trained the minds of men in logic, and prepared the world for the dawn of the glorious sixteenth century. Man had spanned the world, and his narrow horizon had widened with his new discoveries. Before the dawn of another century, the world had received the gift of its Columbus, enjoyed its Angelo and its Raphael, read its Shakespeare, looked through the telescope of its Galileo, and heard the teachings of its Luther. Scholasticism was passing away, and the world was awakening to a new era. The experimental method of Bacon was finding acceptance, men were turning away from authority to freedom, and the voice of Comenius was heard crying in the wilderness of mys-

ticism to make straight the path of the coming school master. Men were beginning to doubt that in order to be a scholar it was necessary to think in a dead language, play fantastic tricks in the reasoning of mediaeval mysticism, and be like Janus of old, but with the fore-face asleep, and ever looking back with the other to the times of Pericles. Education was gradually spreading to all classes, and the business of instruction was passing from the hands of the clergy to the laity. Dead languages were giving way to the study of living languages, and the study of nature was accorded some little share of time —all in the hope of teaching men to live in the present and not in the past.

But the need of a new profession was not yet felt in the lives of men. Nothing short of revolution would bring this. And revolution brought it, on both sides of the waters. I shall not pause to tell of the effect of the Napoleonic war, in arousing the people of Germany to listen to the dictum of Fichte, which resulted in the building of educational Germany; nor shall I more than mention how, later, France, humiliated by William, had her eyes opened to the need of universal education; for it will suffice for our purpose to note the conditions obtaining in our own country that resulted in the founding of the American free public school.

Here upon virgin soil had been planted a new nation, a nation representing the rich, common blood of the best of the old world. The forefathers were not of the riff-raff of Europe. It was no easy thing in those days to come to the new world; those who came were men of strong mind and purpose, and in many instances, men of considerable learning. The sun of the eighteenth century had gone down in blood, to rise upon the morning of the nineteenth to shine in glorious effulgence upon the most memorable century recorded in the annals of mankind. In the nations of the old world the rulers had been educated in accordance with their times. Here in the new world, all men were to be rulers, and hence all men needed to be educated. The old world had been aroused to the need of the security afforded by universal education, through suffering and humiliation. It was the purpose of the new to make "security," in the memorable words of Horace Mann, "antedate danger." Men came to know that to hand down to an ignorant posterity a self-government was to place in their hands a most dangerous plaything; hence, they came to the realization of

their duty to hand down to posterity an unimpaired educational system—a system having wrapped within its very heart the leaven of growth. This idea of universal education expanded until men became conscious of its full ethical bearing. The inventive genius of modern times had been aroused, too, and the idea of the practical necessity of universal education was coming into the thought of the world. At last, a new universal need had been felt by men, the satisfying of which required the ministering of those of expert training, and a fourth profession was about to arise.

I shall pass quickly over that period of the history of the building of educational America that culminated in the founding of the first normal school in the new world, pausing only in deference to a just requirement to say that the idea of the new institution had been given birth by a university. So far as history records, little was known in America of the normal school movements that had taken place on the other side of the world. Though a suggestion had appeared in the *Massachusetts Magazine* as early as 1789, Professor Olmsted, of Yale, in 1817, made the first practical effort to arouse interest in the training of teachers, and was followed some years later by Professor Kingsley, of the same institution, writing in the *North American Review*. But it was not until that memorable 3rd day of July, 1839, that the doors of the first normal school in America were opened, at Lexington, Massachusetts. And when we reflect upon what might have been the consequences to our republican form of government had there been no free schools, manned by reasonably trained teachers, to Americanize the heterogeneous masses poured upon our shores during the past century, it is not an exaggeration to say that the 3rd of July, 1839, is a date second only in importance in American history to July 4th, 1776. If you would read the most stirring pages in the history of the upbuilding of educational America, follow the growth of the normal school movement from that insignificant beginning. The university had its Abelard, the normal school had its Horace Mann. It is a matter of wonderment when we think that within the lifetime of men in this audience that institution, so bitterly fought, has spread to the uttermost bounds, not of our country alone, but of the civilized world. History records no other institutional growth of such magnitude in a like period of time.

But it is enough for our purpose to know that in the fulness

of time the normal school came, and with its advent was born a new profession—a fourth profession, a learned profession, whose right to its title is still occasionally denied, even in high places. And this brings us to the heart of our subject tonight.

Our brethren of the older professions tell us that we disagree among ourselves, and that this is sufficient indication that we are not a true profession. I plead guilty as to the disagreement, but must remark how *naïve* are these brethren! Do the different schools of medicine indicate agreement in the medical profession? Is it not common that "doctors disagree"? Does the dissenting opinion, accompanying nearly every decision handed down by the supreme court, indicate agreement as to underlying principles, among the legal profession? And do the multitudinous religious sects of Christendom denote agreement in the theological profession? I believe that the teaching profession is more nearly in agreement as to the underlying principles of its doctrine than is any one of the old professions.

In a broad, general way, it is the business of the teaching profession to determine the purpose of education in general, to formulate courses of study, to organize and govern schools, and to teach.

In discussing its purpose, I am aware that one is on the most debatable ground in all the field of education; for its purpose has ever been the crux of education. This grows out of the nature of education, which we can best determine through a comprehension of what men consider education to be. Rosenkranz speaks of it as the "influencing of man by man proposing to lead him to actualize himself through his own efforts." Much narrowing of this view is essential, however, if we would comprehend the practical purpose of school education, even in its widest phases; as Barnett says, "we are warned, first of all, against nursing the notion that school training can ever be made, even in the most favored cases, final and adequate; it can only approximate to an ideal; it must be a compromise at best."

In the Prussian National System, education is conceived as "the harmonious and equable evolution of the human powers," while Stein, more at length, defines it as "a method based on the nature of the mind, by which every power of the soul is to be unfolded, every crude principle of life stirred up and nourished, all one-sided culture avoided, and the impulses on which the strength and worth of men rest, are carefully attended to."

James Mill thinks the end of education to be "to render the individual, as much as possible, an instrument of happiness, first to himself, and next to other beings;" while his son, later on, presents a more universal notion of education, as including "whatever we do for ourselves, and whatever is done for us by others, for the express purpose of bringing us nearer to the perfection of our nature; in its largest acceptation, it comprehends even the indirect effects produced on human character and on the human faculties by things of which the direct purposes are different; by laws, by form of government, by the industrial arts, by modes of social life; nay, even by physical facts not dependent on human will; by climate, soil and local position." Wide as it is, this definition, if such it may be called, might be extended to include the effect of death itself, and the onward movement of life beyond. Mill, recognizing its very wide universality, narrows down to "the culture which each generation purposely gives to those who are to be its successors, in order to qualify them for at least keeping up, and, if possible, for raising, the improvement which has been attained."

Again, Matthew Arnold says, "The ideal of a general, liberal training is to carry us to a knowledge of ourselves and the world," and Herbert Spencer declares that the purpose of education is "to prepare us for complete living," while our own Thomas Davidson says, "Education is conscious or voluntary evolution."

No one of these excellent and helpful conceptions can be actualized in school education; so the definite purpose of such education is still its crux, and will probably remain so to the end of time. Different communities, and different generations, would not likely agree upon what is meant by "complete living," and would, therefore, not agree as to the purpose of education, and the relative educational values of its study-subjects. Davidson's notion of education as conscious evolution, is destined, I think, to take deeper and deeper hold upon advancing civilization. If we accept, in some form, Lamarck's theory of appetency as to the ultimate cause of intellectual evolution, from the primordial germ up to the point where man consciously works at his own evolution, and calls his work "Education," we catch a glimpse of Mr. Davidson's idea. But as "complete living" must ever change, and as the objective ends of "conscious evolution" must ever recede, with an ad-

vancing civilization, so the purposes of education today will not be the purposes of tomorrow, though the ultimate end and the fundamental purpose will remain unchanged. It is commonly held by the best teachers of children that the fundamental purpose in education is the formation of character. To him who has a just appreciation of the meaning of character, it is evident that many forces besides those of the school enter into its building, but the conception of the purpose of education as centering in character building, is both noble and safe, and I should be glad if the idea would become common to our people. Nevertheless it is true that what seems to constitute the best character today may fall short of requirements at no very distant period, and educational values, from this standpoint, would remain somewhat unstable.

Indeed, the purpose of education, and educational values, as ascribed to study-subjects, have always received a national coloring and have been varied with the times. The values will be justly diminished or enlarged, and the purpose broadened and clarified, as civilization progresses. The broadest and best view of life, it seems to me, is that which sees in life a noble means to a nobler end. A commercial age will necessarily take a utilitarian view of the purpose of education, but this will not be destructive of the higher self, if modified by the consideration of life as a means. No man can here set metes and bounds. Finite mind can never compass the Infinite, but it tends ever toward the Infinite, and hence it has before it eternal progress, making possible and desirable everlasting life. The genuine scholar realizes, first of all, how infinitesimal is the knowledge of man, and hence his detestation of the vanity of the individual of small learning, yet often dubbed scholar, who imagines he looks out upon the world with a godlike view.

The institutions of the world, set up as the concrete embodiment of the will of man, are founded each upon an underlying principle, opposition to which means the destruction of the institution. For instance, the underlying principle of the State is justice, and organized opposition to this principle by the men composing a state would destroy the very semblance of a state; here, as elsewhere, the wages of sin is death. Men have founded the institution known as the school, that learning may be handed down from generation to generation, and progress be maintained. The fundamental principle of the school is progress. If the school should become untrue to its

underlying principle and remain stationary, unprogressive, for a few generations, it would become a useless institution, and pass out of existence. Opposition, even in small degree, to the underlying principle of the school always cripples it, and continued and determined opposition would mean death to the institution.

In determining the purpose of education, schoolmen will ever set and reset the stake that marks our educational aim; varying with the onward march of civilization; guided by the principle of progress that underlies the institution they serve; never doubting that

Through the ages one increasing purpose runs.

It is the business of the teaching profession to formulate courses of study, and to do it intelligently, the purpose of education must be held in mind. It is evident from this and the nature of education that a course can never be a fixed quantity; it will widen or intensify with the advancing purpose of education. If we compare the course of study proposed by the Committee of Ten with that of the Eisleben School, prepared in 1525, or with that of Sturm, formulated a few years later, and seemingly with an element of permanency in it, we can form some conception of the increasing demands as to the content of education. The course of the Committee of Ten, strong and rich as it is, will be antiquated within the lifetime of some of us. In the formation of curricula, as regards content, the teacher will ever be guided anew by the principle of progress as manifested in the race. But, in the arrangement of the subjects, he will have to be guided by the nature of mind. I do not know that knowledge exists anywhere in the universe except in a mind, and to gain knowledge, a mind must grow. In apperceiving, the mind brings itself to bear, by means of its organized structure, upon the sensuous material presented to it; but we must not lose sight of the other side of the act, for no act of apperception leaves the organized structure of the mind just as it was. There has been a growth, and the apperceiving organ is stronger and adjusted for a wider range of work than before. In conformity to the doctrine of apperception, the teacher must arrange, not the material of lessons alone, but the subjects of the curriculum. And to do this, requires that profound knowledge of subjects that sees their relations and interdependencies. Yea, he must be able to enter the very arcana of mind, and adjust subject matter to the predetermined laws

of mental activity. To quote Arnold Tompkins, "A course of study is a statement of the process of self-realization in terms of subject matter."

In this cursory manner, I have tried to indicate the laws that determine quantity and arrangement in school curricula. In passing I must say that the arrangement must exhibit a psychological order, which may or may not be in conformity to the logical order. The psychological and the logical order would be identical in an infinite mind; the psychological may identify itself with the logical order in a learned mind; but the logical order may not mark the path of a growing mind.

Leaving quantity and arrangement, is there no law to determine the kind of subject-matter to choose for a course? The culture epoch theory was, I believe, first suggested by Comte, and has since been built upon by various others.

Herbert Spencer summarizes the doctrine in these words: "The education of the child must accord, both in mode and arrangement, with the education of mankind, as considered historically; or, in other words, the genesis of knowledge in the individual must follow the same course as the genesis of knowledge in the race." I would not hold to this doctrine so tenaciously as many, especially Mr. Spencer, but I believe it is very suggestive in determining "educational values" and in the arrangement of study-subjects. It seems to me that the strongest analogy supporting the theory is one usually unnoticed by educational philosophers: I refer to Haeckel's demonstration of the practical correctness of Darwin's theory of human phylogeny, by showing its agreement with human ontogeny. Phylogeny is the history of the evolution of organic tribes. Human phylogeny began with the moneron, and culminated in the human race. The moneron is the simplest known form of animal life; it is scarcely more than a bit of protoplasm endowed with feeling. Darwin theoretically traced this endowed life through the forms of fish, amphibian, mammal, ape, and up to man.

Ontogeny is the history of the evolution of an individual organism. Human ontogeny begins with the monerula and culminates in the individual man. The monerula, like the moneron, is a simple bit of protoplasm. Haeckel, by bringing microscopic examination to bear upon this bit of life during its prenatal states, through the period of gestation, found that it assumed the structure of the lancelet, then of the fish, even to

the extent of having gills, and later took on amphibian and mammal forms; lastly, looked much like an ape, and then took on the human form. It seemed that human phylogeny was repeated in human ontogeny, and that through the potency of the law of heredity, phylogeny is the cause of ontogeny. Untold ages are epitomized in the brief period of nine months. Now, it has seemed to me that if the law of heredity is so far-reaching in the physical realm, that its potency will be as never-failing in the realm of spirit, or mind; that is, the mental life of the individual, mental ontogeny, will be an epitome of mental phylogeny, the mind life of the race, or, in Mr. Spencer's words, "the genesis of knowledge in the individual must follow the same course as the genesis of knowledge in the race."

Forgetting that, as untold ages can be but epitomized in the brief period of gestation, so untold ages of mental life can be but epitomized in the brief period of child life, short-sighted educators ride to death the culture-epoch hobby, to the lasting harm of children. I believe the doctrine is little more than suggestive. I do not think the "periods" advocated by the "Herbartians" are well taken. Though he did not suggest them for the purpose, I think those of Draper in his "Intellectual Development of Europe" are better suited to support an educational theory. Taking any race, he divides their history into an age of credulity, an age of inquiry, of faith, of reason, and of decrepitude. Draper never worked out the proof of his "Ages," and I offer them as simply suggestive. During the Greeks' age of credulity, their wisest men believed implicitly that God dwelt upon Mt. Olympus, and would hurl a thunderbolt through the heart of any seoffer who dared attempt to scale its sacred heights. Mythological stories found ready and actual believers: the story of the dragon's teeth, or the caprices of Zeus, even to his unholy love of Leda, found easy acceptance. It was the childhood of the race, and by the law of heredity our little ones find no difficulty in Santa Claus's coming down through the chimney, or even in crawling through the keyhole with great bags of presents; and the arrival of the stork is perfectly natural. But, by and by, in the history of the race, come teachers like Socrates, with their everlasting questions, and an age of inquiry is on. So, too, in the case of the child, his never-ending questions indicate that his age of inquiry is emanent.

The parallelism need be carried no further for our purpose,

for it is clear that in the early life of the child is the time to teach him those conventional subjects whose content serves him later as the tools of educational acquisition. It is amazingly hard for a grown person to learn to read, or write, or figure. Apperception helps him in learning a new language, but a child could outstrip him even here. While superficial, yet the extent of a child's field of learning needs to be, and is, as wide as the universe. In very truth, a course of study narrows from the primary school to the university, with its content deepening at every step, when the university student is enabled to behold the nexus of the universe through his conception of the universal found in even one subject. In the very nature of things, a growing mind cannot be a deep mind; it cannot specialize. In the child's early years, his mind, like his body, is growing with great rapidity. Development goes on, but becomes more complete in the form of special powers, somewhat later. Spencer points out the difference between growth and development, basing his remarks upon the theory of St. Hilaire, and illustrating by the caterpillar's great growth without change of structure; while in the chrysalis state, when great structural changes are going on, growth is slow. And this is exactly so in mind development.

I was amazed a few years ago to hear a professor, of more than national reputation, in one of our greatest universities, assuring his class that genetic psychology was a distinction without a difference. The psychology of the individual, he declared, was psychology simply, from the cradle to the grave. He pointed out that the function of the stomach in man is the digestion of food, and this is the identical function of the stomach in the child. The man's heart is to propel blood, and so is the child's heart. From this analogy he declared that memory in the child is simply memory, just as it is in the adult. And so of perception, reasoning, and other mental powers.

And now, my friends, I want to endorse most of what that learned doctor said. However, his trouble was that from which many another suffers: he did not go far enough.

"Papa," said a lad, "I can do something you can't." "What's that?" asked the father. "Grow!" triumphantly shouted the son. And the boy was right. We may admit that the anatomies of the boy and man are practically identical, but the physiology of the two, in several important respects, differs in some mysterious way. The man consumes more food than

the child, and the quantity may be multiplied, but still he cannot add the thousandth part of an inch to his stature. The essential difference in the two is that one is growing, and the other is not. Thus, if the physiological analogy is worth anything in the discussion, it would seem to me rather to support the theory of a genetic psychology. Let us fit the analogy more completely to psychology. I understand by human physiology the science of the functions of the bodily organs. Now, while the function of any particular organ of the child's body is essentially that of the same adult organ, yet it is indisputably true that the totality of the functions of the child's organs differs from the totality of the functions of the adult organs, in the general function of growth. Now, we cannot assume that this functional difference of growth is applicable to the body alone, for it is applicable to the mind as well. Analogically, we may legitimately speak of the anatomy of the mind as well as of physiological psychology. Anatomically, the mind of the child and of the adult may be, and certainly are, alike, but physiologically, that is, in functional purpose, they undoubtedly differ. The function of any particular mental faculty, or organ, to carry out the analogy, may be the same in each, as, for instance, memory; but I believe the totality of the mental functions of the two to differ, just as do the totality of the bodily functions, in the predominance of the element of growth.

I may enter a college gymnasium and prepare my body by training to perform feats now impossible to it; but my body has acquired no growth; through the process of habit, it has acquired a facility in certain executions. So the mind of the adult may gain certain facilities through the same process, of which growth is not the marked element. We know very little of the spiritual, yet I feel warranted in saying that while it is probable that the human mind continues to grow throughout life, yet it is undeniably certain that its growth is slow in proportion as age advances.

While we may comprehend the difference but imperfectly, yet I think there is little room to doubt that there is a difference between the child's and the adult's mind, and out of that difference comes genetic psychology, with, however, its basic principles identical with the basic principles of psychology in general.

In the formation of a course of study, I submit that the teacher must be guided by the law of progress, by the principle of apperception, by the laws of heredity as exemplified through

the principle of evolution, and by the laws of psychology in general as affected by genetic psychology.

It is the business of the teaching profession to organize and govern schools. The ability displayed in effecting any kind of organization can be relied upon here just in so far as the organizer realizes the purpose of the organism he desires to bring into existence. The business of a school is not the same as that of a railroad or a department store. Everything about the railroad must be controlled by, and center in, one idea: namely, safe, quick, cheap transportation, at the highest rate obtainable; while in the department store it is the systematic and satisfactory supplying of customers' needs at the highest prices consistent with existing competition. The same kind of ability is displayed in the organization of any of these three institutions, the railroad, the store, or the school, or in fact any other institution; but in any case, the organizer must know and shape his organization according to its underlying, controlling law of unity. The first President of the Indiana State Normal was wont to call a school an organic, spiritual unity. The purpose of a school is the growth of the student, and the whole organization must be made with that end in view. Whatever hinders this end is foreign to the organization. The principle of mental growth must dictate the organization. This growth takes place in the teaching act, in the union of teacher and pupil, and every arrangement, every act, must be bent toward this consummation. Facility must be sought, but it must be the facility that facilitates the supreme purpose. This may rule out some red tape, but we should be the better for that. The ultimate good of the student must be the central aim.

In governing a school, if governed right, a high grade of teaching is done. The central aim will be to develop the self-governing powers of the student. This cannot be done by granting license, but must come through the rational development of freedom, followed by the necessary liberty for self-government. All right education tends toward freedom, in the sense of capacity. "The truth shall make ye free," and in the fullest sense. A young man who has been so unfortunate as to grow up from childhood under repressive school and home government, will not have the capacity to govern himself—he will lack the freedom, when the liberty is granted to him to govern himself. When the repressive hands of authority are removed

from him, and he is told that he is free to shape his own course, he finds he lacks ballast, judgment, and the capacity for decision. The paradoxical nature of this statement disappears when we think of freedom as acquired capacity, and liberty as opportunity. One may be governed from without, but self-government must come from within—a most important thing to consider in the schools of a republic.

Not for a moment is the freedom of self-government in school to be thought of as license to do as one pleases. The rather it is to be thought of as the development of the will through ethical culture. Students in higher institutions must be led to appreciate the liberty of law through finding sweet reasonableness in institutional life. Very few men who say "Thy kingdom come, Thy will be done," comprehend the full meaning of what they say. These words embody the highest generalization of universal law. Neither Kant's Categorical Imperative nor the Savior's Golden Rule means quite so much. Ethics is more than the science of duty, it is the science of the will. If a man truly wills the good, he is good, no matter what mistakes he may make. We hear much about having morals taught in our schools. The whole school, the whole course, every step, is the teaching of morals, if the work is done by a teacher who knows the ultimate good, wills it, and works for it. A man may be a good blacksmith, and take a vacation, and still be a good blacksmith while on his vacation. But a good man cannot take a vacation from duty and being good, and still be a good man while on his vacation. Morals in a school must permeate the school in its entire work and conduct. It must be ethically governed. The student is not educated, if he does not take up into himself the law of the school as his own will. I do not decry set lessons in ethics, given students capable of comprehending the philosophy of such instruction; but what I insist upon is, that the actual governing of the school should be the concrete embodiment of ethics. To govern a school so, the teacher must comprehend the science of duty toward the ethical objects of life; he must know the virtue and reward growing out of that duty performed; he must be able, as occasion demands, to point out the temptations in relation to ethical objects, to disclose the nature of the vices growing out of yielding to temptation, and the inevitable penalty that is their sequence. Young men and women, not tainted by hereditary viciousness, so governed,

will develop into the richest and rarest citizenship with which a country can be blessed.

I trust I have made it manifest that in order wisely to organize and govern a school, a teacher must possess a clear insight into the organic unity of the school; that is, he must be able to see and bring its differences into unity. He must have, in an elementary way, at least, a knowledge of the philosophy of law, and he must be well grounded in ethics; for the underlying principles of these subjects will control his school organization and government.

Last for our consideration, yet first and greatest of the functions to be discharged by the teaching profession, is the teaching act itself—a subject far too great for the meager treatment it can here be accorded; for all philosophy underlies teaching; no knowledge is too great for him who undertakes it.

How the mind constructs the outside world or how the outside world gets into consciousness; or, what is the same thing, how consciousness gets into the outside world, is the riddle of psychology. A knife blade will cut almost anything except itself. So mind explains almost anything except itself. In a sense, this is a view all too common. Consciousness in itself is really indefinable, because we can do nothing but define it in terms of itself. When we say mind can explain almost anything except itself, we betray a looseness of thought, because mind explains only itself, as read into the world. The limitations of finite mind are such as effectually to bar it from a knowledge of the noumenon. Phenomena alone can enter consciousness. In this sheet of paper or in a grain of sand, or a speck of dust, I can find an insoluble mystery; for what either is, in itself, I do not know. Even if modern science should prove the atom to be a form of force, or motion, the mystery would be but turned around, and I should know no more of the noumenon than before. Holding a bar of iron in my hand, I pronounce it hard, cold, black and heavy. Yet I can imagine a being with harder nerves and muscles than mine, with ten thousand times my strength, who, as he would dent the bar of iron with his thumb, would pronounce it soft, nor would he think it heavy. With slow blood and cool flesh, he would think the iron warm; with a slight difference in the motion of his optic nerves, he would call it yellow. While we must acknowledge the relativity of all knowledge, yet both the giant and I should agree that iron

is a useful metal, bearing certain relations to other forms of matter. Iron to him would not be so soft as putty. Through comparison, and knowing the same world of objects, our knowledge of iron would, after all, be identical, as we should place it in the same relations as regards other objects in the world. In spite of his strength, relatively, the giant would have to class iron as a hard substance. Our definitions of iron would, doubtless, agree; that is, we should think diversity into unity, and that is definition. With the definition as a mental possession, we should each recognize the same matter in the world of objects as iron. Our minds would know alike. And this movement of all minds in the acquisition and use of knowledge is the vital thing for the teacher, for upon it as a principle is founded method; in fact, the inductive-deductive movement of mind is method. Mind moves through a series of individuals, sufficient in number to cancel non-essential attributes, and arrives at its general notion, under which it assumes any number of individuals of that class. This is the analytic-synthetic action of mind. The general notion is the goal of the learning mind, because it takes the form of a rule or scheme, serving the mind as a pattern for the construction or recognition of individuals—whether in the world of mathematical, physical, biological or psychological science. This law discloses the truth that the teacher's work is but half done, when the learner has formed, even clearly, his general notion or concept. He must be practiced in applying his general notion, thus giving him the use of knowledge, and at the same time clear, strengthen, and help fix his general notion. This return to the particular, completes the circuit of knowledge. Knowledge thus considered, without reference to its content, is an activity: thus the law of self-activity in learning is disclosed.

Back of a concept is every particular presented in the history of the mind holding that concept, which discloses the law of apperception; that is, how the organized structure of the mind reacts upon sensuous material. Any material presented to the mind gets recognition only through relation to something already known; hence the doctrine of the movement from the known to the unknown. In short, the law of method is disclosed by the law of mind; that is, it is the law of mind. It is the nature of the mind to think diversity into unity, and to bring under that unity all new diversity; that is, explain the new, the unknown. Method is the process, in any teach-

ing act, of bringing diversity into unity, thus leading the learner's mind along its natural path.

I trust I have said enough to establish the fact that there are definite principles governing the teaching act.

A beneficent creator made insanity possible, for if minds did not swing toward it now and then in bold search of Truth, we should be slow in finding her. We sometimes hear men who ought to know better talk of a purely "professional school" for teachers, by which term they mean a school in which the common branches of the public school are not taught. Such a school would be anything else than professional. As well might a medical school say to its students, "Now, you will use these drugs when you get out into practice, of course, but it would be a waste of time and unprofessional to study *materia medica* here; we will devote our time entirely to physiology; let us learn how to doctor." Now, when the young physician goes out he is going to practice medicine; that is, he will put to the test his judgment in a given case; and one term of that judgment will be his knowledge of the chemical action of a drug, held in comparison with physiological function. So, the young teacher when he goes out is going to teach arithmetic; and he should study arithmetic from the professional standpoint in his normal school. A normal school that does not do academic work is very suggestive of the play of Hamlet, with the significant figure left out. Such a course would be fully as wise as the proceedings of the faculty of a theological seminary who should say to the students: "You do not need to study the Word, it is our business to teach you how to preach. Of course, you are going to preach the Word, but we are professional, and will teach you only how to preach." So a law school could tell its students not to study law, just study how to practice law.

We are aware that the teacher's subjects have been studied during his common school course. But his view of them there was not of sufficient depth, nor from the professional standpoint. In the teaching act, the teacher must hold the subject in mind as a process to be realized in the mind of the learner, who sees only an object to be reached. Two persons traverse a road; one desires simply to reach his destination, the other must send back directions to a friend who is to come the way alone. The attitude of the two will be quite different.

If a learned profession is constituted by a class of men who

have mastered a body of scientific knowledge, founded upon distinctive fundamental principles, and differentiated from the knowledge essential simply to the well-informed—in short, knowledge essential to the differentiated class that they may minister to a universal need, then I submit that teaching is a learned profession.

It would be the height of presumption for me to attempt to instruct this audience, composed so largely of university men, as to what should be the nature of a university; yet I beg your indulgence of a closing remark, on the relation of the university to the work of the normal school.

The university is a very free institution. In a sense, there is no settled requirement that makes an institution a university. A standard might be set, but the very nature of the institution will not permit limitations. Two very different standards of measurement are applied, in determining if a given institution is of university grade. Some claim, arguing from the Latin significance of the word "university," that an institution has a right to the name, if its curriculum embraces the entire field of human learning. Others, again, claim that extent does not make the true university, but that the validity of its claim rests in the depth and scope of its research into any given branch of human learning and investigation—that the term university really carries with it the idea of tracing a branch out into all the completeness of its universal relations. Historically, neither of these conceptions has any basis in the name of the institution. The early universities, from which the modern institutions took their rise, were known as *Studia Generalia*. The *Studium Generale* signified a school open to the students of all lands. The word "university," later applied, was a term signifying that the institution had been incorporated. The added significance is a growth.

I am inclined to consider both these conceptions of a university as correct, if taken in proper order. A university should be founded upon the second conception; that is, truth for truth's sake should be its aim, and profundity and completeness should characterize all its work. A university that fails to develop new truth, and waits for it to come from the outside, is not discharging its function toward the people that support it. A university, patterned mainly after the Oxford plan, may, as a collection of colleges or technical schools, do valuable service, but not commensurate with the cost of maintaining such an

institution. But a new truth discovered, may be worth a university's cost of maintenance throughout time. Let the university be founded upon the idea of the greatest perfection and depth in the work it does, in the one, two or three subjects it teaches. Then let it widen toward the universality of knowledge, as its means will permit, without, however, lowering the standard of its work in any branch it undertakes.

The most serious drawback for our universities is insufficient funds; for the desire, amounting almost to a craze, in some of them for bigness causes them to spread their meager funds so thin in order to secure a large faculty that they are forced to be content with commonplace talent in their chairs. The choicest intellects of earth should be found in our university chairs. Am I in error when I say that newly fledged "doctors" who have given no proof of exceptional ability in the world's work, are hardly sufficiently seasoned timber for a university professorship? Am I in error when I say that the ultimate problem of intellect is to think world diversity into universology? If not, then I have stated the ultimate problem of the university, and indicated the kind of minds that must solve it.

In the light of what has already been said, I hardly need say that I believe that education is a proper subject for the university. In its organization it should have a place, and a very prominent one. The normal is a technical school. Experimentation and investigation, in the university sense, have no place in it. It is its business to work along the lines of the tried and proved—not that it should be hostile to the new, but its limitations are such that research in large measure is without its scope. On the other hand, for the university to undertake the work the normal schools are doing is to fritter its funds away for the sake of numbers. The genuine university is glad to be rid of this sort of work.

Barring, possibly, the work of Stanley Hall, at Clark University, little or no real university work in education has been done in our country. The work at Columbia University is too much on the order of the normal school to measure up to the standard we have in mind. The departments of education in some of our universities are sorry affairs. They deal out a sort of quasi-educational philosophy, tinctured with a mild infusion of pedagogy of very doubtful value, doing on the whole work far inferior to that of our best normal schools. I do

not know what DeGarmo is doing at Cornell, but I believe, if his hands are not tied, he will eventually create a university faculty of education that will accomplish work in this greatest and most serviceable of all departments that will measure up to university requirements—a faculty under whom experienced teachers could study with real profit—a faculty whose publications would be sought by thinkers throughout the educational field. As students in such a department none but experienced teachers or normal graduates should be admitted.

Of the time-honored faculties of Religion, Law, Medicine, and Philosophy, the first, owing to the separation of church and state, is ruled out of our state universities. Why may not a faculty of Education, independent of, though not distinct from, the Philosophical faculty, take its place? And can there be a reasonable doubt that in a great university supporting a strong faculty of education, men, making final preparation for teaching in technical schools and colleges, whether of teaching, law or medicine, and men, aiming for university positions or to become heads of great school systems, could be found by the hundreds enrolled under that faculty? For teaching is not only a learned profession; it is the profession of professions; for at the feet of teachers all who aspire to pass the portals of any profession must sit.

In closing, may I proclaim a ringing truth to normal school men by quoting a stanza from the last poem ever written by Oliver Wendell Holmes:

Teacher of teachers! Yours the task,
Noblest that noble minds can ask;
High up Aonia's murmurous mount,
To watch, to guard the sacred fount
That feeds the stream below;
To guide the hurrying flood that fills
A thousand silvery rippling rills
In ever widening flow.

And now in my own, though less polished lines, may I say to university teachers:

Seekers of truth eternal! Yours the boon,
To stand in the pure and gladsome light of noon;
To struggle for Olympus' sacred height
And leave behind the gloom of darkest night,
Enshrouding minds of men below;
To kindle beacon-fires where gods did dwell—
And guide the wandering souls of earth from hell—
That all may see, and live, and know.

THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT AND HIS MISSION.

SUPERINTENDENT J. N. POWERS, West Point, Miss.

More efficient leaders, is the cry of the wide-awake rural teachers. "Why are not our educational facilities better?" ask the people of these districts. "Can we afford to pay the county superintendent more money?" ask the politicians. In language most emphatic the educational forces are demanding trained men for this responsible position. All of these expressions mean something. They indicate that the idea is taking hold; that down in the hearts of the rural people a keen sense of their lack of proper educational facilities is being felt as never before. They signify that the responsibility will soon be fixed.

Many of us have gone among the people of the rural districts and aroused them to a sense of their danger. We have made the comparison, and demonstrated their needs. The result is a general demand on the part of the great majority of these people for better school buildings, longer terms, and more efficient teachers. In short, they are demanding that their boys and girls be given a chance. The ten grades in our town and city schools admonish these people that they dare not place their children, who have had merely the advantages usually given in the country schools, in active competition with the town and city children who have had such splendid training. They realize that in the very nature of things the country boy cannot compete with the city boy. The old order of things in this relation is fast being reversed. The poorer classes in the towns and cities have a better opportunity to educate their children than their brothers in the rural districts. The result is that the rural districts are being depopulated to an alarming extent. Our rural people are moving to the towns in order that their children may have a better chance. The danger is manifest. It is no part of this paper to discuss the dangers attending the congestion of the towns and cities. Something must be done. To whom shall we turn for guidance? Who is to "lead the people out of the wilderness?" Manifestly the county superintendent is the logical leader. His opportunities are limitless, his responsibility great, his field exhaustless.

His mission is to respond to the little hands and earnest hearts reaching up into his life.

Is the county superintendent as we find him prepared for this important work? Is he competent? If competent, is the

remuneration sufficient for him to devote his entire time to the duties of his office?

Before preparing this paper I sent the following questions to the State Superintendents of the Southern States:

1. What is the maximum salary paid your county superintendents? The minimum.
2. What per cent. of your superintendents are college graduates? What per cent. have no college training?
3. Does your State appoint or elect these officers?
4. What examination is required of a candidate for this office?
5. Is the county superintendent required to visit his schools; if so, how often?
6. Is the superintendent allowed to teach school while holding office?
7. What in your opinion is most needed in the South to give us more efficient superintendents?
8. Kindly furnish me with any other data that will assist me in preparing this paper.

The answers to question 1 give the following interesting data:

	Maximum Salary.	Minimum Salary.
Alabama	\$3,500	\$300
Georgia	1,500	100
Florida	1,800	240
Kentucky	1,500	450
Louisiana	2,400	600
*Maryland
Mississippi	1,000	240
North Carolina	1,500	63
South Carolina	1,300	400
Tennessee	2,000	35
*Texas
*West Virginia
Virginia	910	200

*No data received.

In Arkansas the salary of the superintendent depends upon the number of applicants for license to teach.

General average maximum salary paid county superintendents—\$1,741. General average minimum salary—\$262.80. I find that very few counties in these States pay above \$1,000.

From the data at hand I find the average salary of the superintendents to be less than \$700.

The answers to question 2 were not full, few of the State Superintendents having this data at hand. It was ascertained, however, from those answering that less than 50 per cent. of these officers have had college training; while less than 25 per cent. are college graduates.

The answers to question 3 show that nearly all of the county superintendents are elected.

Question 4: What examination is required of an applicant for this office? gives the surprising information that six States require no examination; four require first grade license, and in one State the examination is given by the State Superintendent.

The answers to question 5 inform us that all of these officers are required to visit their schools once a year, but that many fail to comply with this provision of the law.

Answers to question 6 name six states that allow their superintendent to teach school while holding office, while five prohibit it.

Perhaps more interest centers in the answers to question 7—What, in your opinion, is most needed in the South to give us more efficient county superintendents? I quote the answers in full: Thorough normal training.—Better salaries and more specific requirements of county superintendents by law.—Better pay and better trained men.—Better salaries.—Better pay, and educating public opinion so that only the best qualified men shall be elected.—Better salaries and higher qualifications.—Public sentiment demanding trained men.—Sufficient salaries to secure efficient men.—More interest on the part of parents and more efficient teachers.

I take it that the answers to these questions will be considered pretty good authority relative to the demands to be met on the part of the county superintendent.

They convey the information from the highest authority that our county superintendents as a whole are not prepared for their work.

I desire to say by way of parenthesis that some counties have earnest, faithful, conscientious, skilled men to supervise their schools. We are largely indebted to these faithful workers for the general awakening of our rural people to a sense of their educational needs. Upon the whole, however, I repeat that the superintendent is not prepared to supervise his schools, advise

with his teachers, and lead his patrons. He is incompetent in a majority of cases because he is without the proper training. He is without the proper training because his opportunities for acquiring an education have been limited. Our State Superintendents, with peculiar unanimity, agree that we must have better paid and better trained men if they are to accomplish their mission.

The question that forces itself upon us is, How shall we secure the best men for this position? First, we must weed out the incompetent men by raising the requirements. Second, we must increase the salary in order that the most competent men will offer for the place. Third, after the salary and requirements are raised, laws must be passed in consonance with the duties of the office, and we must see that they are enforced. As far as possible the office must be divorced from politics.

We must guard against increasing the salary without raising the requirements. Mississippi made this mistake, and the result is that the same men are holding the office with increased salaries. This State made another mistake in not increasing the salary to such a figure as would secure the best talent.

Without going into a discussion of the laws that should be passed, I desire in this connection to call attention to the imperative need of a law that will require the superintendent to devote his whole time to the duties of his office. In many of the counties of the Southern States lawyers and other professional men are holding the office of county superintendent as a "side line." It would indeed be a great mistake if we should continue to allow this important office to be in the hands of men who in many instances are incapable in their chosen profession. Laws that permit this rob the office of all dignity.

To whom shall we look to take the initiative in arousing our state legislatures to the demands of this office? We must not forget that the ordinary as well as the extraordinary politician is ever ready to serve the dear people; and just here is the key to the solution of this problem: *The people must make the demands.* No thoughtful people have any patience with that brand of politician who says "we will leave it in the hands of the people, and if they elect incompetent men to office it is none of our business." This is but the demagogical way of serving a people. It is clearly our duty to wage an aggressive campaign among the people. The time is ripe. The interest our rural people manifest in every educational gathering, their desire to

hear speakers on educational topics encourage us to believe that the task of pointing the way to our end will not be so difficult. The State Superintendents are the leaders in this campaign. Circulars must be sent from their offices to the people. Scholarly men of known oratorical ability should be invited to address the state legislatures and plead with our law makers for wiser school laws. Every educational force in each state should be brought to bear on this question. It seems to me more depends on our State Superintendents in this relation than upon any others. We shall look to them as the logical leaders in this movement. If they are without interest what can we expect of the teachers? If they are to manipulate their offices to further political ambition the people will be the sufferers. Can any one doubt that when the rural people are assured that the educational forces of a state are at work for their good, when they realize that we go before them in the interest of bone of their bone and flesh of their flesh, they will fail to respond?

A word to those who are in a position to help our State Superintendents in their campaigns. If the principals and superintendents of our town and city schools will co-operate with these officials they can secure the passage of every needed act of legislation. In my own state a great many teachers have offered their services to the county superintendents and waged a campaign among their people. In several instances when the county superintendent was indifferent these earnest teachers have sought invitations to address the people of their county on educational questions. They have reached them through the papers. Pardon a personal reference—a few weeks ago I accepted an invitation to deliver an address in a community where the people had just completed a commodious school building. This community is remote from the railroad. By consolidating three small schools, and with some aid from the county and from private sources, these people have today superior educational facilities. Their building is equipped with the best school furniture. Their principal is a college graduate, and his assistants are all skilled teachers. Three such schools have been built and organized in that county during the year. They are typical rural high schools. Does any one believe that these people will become dissatisfied with their environment so long as they have an opportunity to give their children a chance in life? In the communities where these schools are found the State Superintendent, the county super-

intendent, the principals of the town schools, and many other citizens have aroused the people to their needs. The truth is, ladies and gentlemen, the progressiveness of the times, the realization by all our people that this is an age of prepared men and women in every calling, is a mighty factor—no doubt the greatest—in our favor. These people must have strong men to supervise their schools. If the county superintendent is to accomplish his great mission; if he is to be instrumental in giving the Southland a more progressive and intelligent citizenship; if he is to respond to the hands reaching up into his life, he must not only be well paid, and well trained, but he must have the help of every school assistant, principal and superintendent in the field.

The plea I come before you to make above all else is to beseech every teacher in our Southland to do his part in pressing this work among his people, and in seeking the earnest co-operation of all our citizens, to the end that the dignity of the important office of county superintendent shall be in consonance with its demands. My plea is to urge every earnest man and woman to uphold the superintendent in his work, that he may accomplish his great mission. With a steady adherence to our obligations in these matters, with a just sense of our duty to the society of our section, let us march forward resolved to give every boy and girl in our Southern States a square deal—a chance to develop their God-given attributes, until they shall all stand forth strong American citizens, able to appreciate to the fullest extent the duties and obligations resting upon us as a section and as a nation.

THE PRIVATE HIGH SCHOOL.

W. R. WEBB, Principal Webb School, Bell Buckle, Tenn.

The private high school was the first of all schools in time. Its value was so great that the church felt it necessary to aid it and then to take control of it. It is human to exercise power when possible, and the church tried to monopolize the best possible means of generating power. She saw the power that intelligence would give her. The value of schools to a rapid dissemination of truth is self-evident. The church, through the schools, a power brought into existence, as all

powers are, by individual initiative, virtually grasped all power and took into its own resources the political as well as moral forces, and became a tyrant.

When the church power was weakened, the state could see what immense forces were in the hands of political rulers and kings by their organizing the schools and supporting them by taxation, and finally republican governments under the leadership of the democrats of Switzerland felt that ignorance was too easily excited by dangerous principles propagated by dangerous men, and saw the absolute necessity of founding schools for all the people. At first government entered the thin end of the wedge by founding elementary schools, but soon saw the necessity of founding universities and high schools.

The large majority of the human family are, and always have been, and always will be, unable to provide adequate means from private resources to educate their children. Whether the principle of taxing one man to educate and train another man's child is right or wrong, is not the question involved in my subject. What the people want is ultimately justified in morals by them, and the public high school is here to stay. Can it meet all the demands made upon it? I answer, no.

The ideal public high school, teaching the moral as well as the intellectual, can only be established in districts densely populated by a homogeneous people, who have a common race and a common religion. Race prejudice and instinct, and religious denominations emphasizing different moral and religious standards, and emphasizing different ecclesiastical policies, will always present complex problems of adjustment too difficult for human solution.

The private high school, limited by conditions of success only, will always be needed to accommodate the youth of sparsely settled people and the youth of those dissatisfied with the standards of moral training in their public high schools. This alone would justify its existence.

In the second place, the course of study in the public high school can not be ideal, fixed as it is by those not competent to fix educational requirements. There is no hope that the law-makers of our country, selected by universal suffrage, can ever be above the average in intelligence. There is no hope that only experts in education can ever be in any legislature on the Committee of Education. The course of study established by law must necessarily be a compromise in which the ideal must

be lowered to the demands of those who don't know. The National Teachers' Association spent years in trying to get the relations between the colleges and the high schools adjusted. They appointed a committee of experts. That committee appointed a sub-committee on each of the departments considered necessary for preparation for college. The sub-committee on Latin demanded as many hours as they thought indispensable, the sub-committee on Greek likewise, and so with that on mathematics, on English, on history, on modern languages, and on science. The Committee of Ten had, as they said, only four years at their command. The requirements of these sub-committees demanded six or more years. The Committee of Ten found themselves overwhelmed, experts that they were. How, then, can the public high school be adjusted to an ideal course by the lawmaker of average intelligence when the greatest experts found themselves unable to limit the requirement within reasonable bounds? The private high school is for this reason a necessity where the teacher is in his own "committee of ten" reasonably to adjust the course of study to God-given limitations, to capacity, and to time.

The public will not for a long time yet allow sufficient money to its schools to properly adjust the number of teachers to the number of students.

The graded system indispensable in the public school makes no allowance for those students who show aptitude. The bright children from intelligent families are necessarily classed with the dull and ignorant, who at home have no literature nor intelligent association to enrich and stimulate their minds. The thoroughbred hitched beside a plug for life may possibly improve in some small degree the gait of the plug, but the thoroughbred will lose in his training all excellencies that come from breeding, and has thwarted the purposes of that breeding. The private school justifies its existence here. Its classification is based on skill in each study and not in all studies, and justifies its existence by not holding back the brightest and maturest minds to a gait established by the dullest and most immature minds.

Again, progress is made only by experiment, manipulated by individual initiative. In this age of transition from authority to experiment, there must be somewhere an experiment station for the crop of children where authority in the use of tools and methods is not compulsory. It is more diffi-

cult to influence large bodies of men than individuals. A new text-book of immense value, and greatly superior to the one in use, may be produced. It has never been tried. It might never be tried if a whole state had to be influenced. A private teacher in his experiment station, his own board on selecting text-books, seeing its wonderful advance over the one in use, can quickly test and demonstrate its usefulness in his laboratory and in this way reach, after many years, the board of public control. The private school is the only experiment station for the present crop of children. This justifies its existence.

The private schools by increase in numbers do not in any way reduce the income of public schools, but simply relieve their overcrowded classes, and in this way assist the public school teacher by rendering him more efficient in enabling him to concentrate his ability on fewer units. The public high school and the private high school are in no sense rivals, in no sense antagonistic, and in no sense duplicates of the same advantages. They are to each other supplementary.

No country in the world is so thoroughly supplied with public high schools as is New England, and there are more endowed private and church schools in that section than elsewhere. These private schools are patronized and sustained by their home people.

Those most competent to judge the best for their children seek the private high school and its advantages when the public high school is absolutely free of expense to them.

It is nonsense to say, as some do, that it is a social question, and that only would-be aristocrats patronize the private school. The manufacturing and mining centers must be supplied with public schools. The moral and intellectual standards in such centers make it necessary for native Americans to found private schools to preserve the purity of their blood and civilization. In Quincy, Mass., a suburb of Boston, in the heyday of Prof. Parker in public education, with a strong corps of well-paid teachers, Dr. Everett's private school for boys commanded the patronage at a large tuition fee of the thoughtful Quincy people, and the Braintree private girls' school had a carload of girls each day from Quincy to secure the advantages of that great institution. I spent weeks in looking into the relative advantages of the public high schools and the private high schools in New England. There is not time to give facts.

My conclusion was that there were as many private schools in New England as there were children enough of real cultured people to fill them.

No greater mistake would be made in education than to break up individual initiative in teaching and turn over all the schools to commissions and boards of education.

Somewhere there ought to be a place for a teacher, who is his own board of trustees, to express himself with no other limitations than the conditions of success—somebody to stem a craze for the tragic in human life for the fun of the thing, until the god of evolution shall roll round the day when he shall adapt Don Quixote to modern conditions.

THE RELATION OF THE SOUTHERN COLLEGE TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

S. M. TUCKER, Professor of English Language and Literature, State College for Women, Tallahassee, Fla.

Only a few years ago our colleges would perhaps have ridiculed the idea that they *could* entertain any relations with the public schools, and their air of patronizing condescension was not such as to encourage familiarity or inspire confidence. But with the tremendous growth of our public high schools, an increase of fifty per cent. in attendance in one decade, and the relative decrease in attendance at private preparatory schools, our colleges have of necessity assumed a change of attitude in their recognition of the dignity and importance of high school work and the tremendous power wielded by these colleges of the people. There is now coming into existence an intelligent co-operation between the colleges and high schools that promises well for the future of education in the southern states.

The most significant expression of this co-operation is the Southern Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools with its adoption of uniform entrance examinations. Beyond doubt, the public high schools of the southern states need a stimulus toward more thorough work, toward work of a higher grade, and toward broader courses. So, too, the colleges of the southern states need to come to a better common understanding of aims and methods.

All this the uniform entrance examinations are supposed to

accomplish; and some of this they have doubtless done. But, as we may see from the experience of the northern and eastern states, there is great danger of making a *fetich* of these examinations and looking upon them as an end in themselves rather than a means. To the graduate of the city high school they may present no difficulties, but to the country boy who has had no such advantages they may form an impassable barrier to a college education.

Any student who is qualified to profit more by college work than by work of a lower grade has a right to be in college with all the burden of his technical deficiencies upon him. As a distinguished teacher has recently said, our entrance standard should be "*What is the boy fitted to receive?*" rather than "*What does the boy know?*" It is a notorious fact in educational circles that certain of our colleges having a high standard of entrance require very little of their students during the college course and grant them a degree that is rather a reward for four years of indolence than of industry; while other colleges having very flexible entrance standards require a large amount of thorough work as requisite for graduation.

There is still another danger in rigid entrance requirements; for, absurd as the statement may seem at first blush, such a thing as too perfect preparation for college is an actual possibility. College teachers are only too familiar with the precocious youngster who, through the breadth of his preparatory course, has brushed the bloom off too many subjects, and by the very superiority of his preparation is encouraged to habits of indolence and indifference, thus destroying interest and weakening character.

A far greater danger than this, however, is that which lies in narrowing high school curricula to such an extent that the public high school becomes a mere preparatory school; for these high school courses of study are too often made from the standpoint of the college teacher rather than from that of the expert in secondary education. To see how real is this danger we have but to glance at the experience of the northern and eastern states where rigid college entrance requirements, at one time beneficial and stimulating, have at last come to exert upon the public high school an influence perhaps more baleful than beneficial. For instance, in the high school study of Latin and Greek, the colleges insist that a large amount of ground shall be covered, so many texts read, and so on. Now we hear the

high school teacher asserting that such a course results in a mere "smattering" of knowledge at the expense of genuine power. From teaching of this kind no mental discipline accrues; and, if we can trust the assurances of *college* teachers, such "smattering" is apt to prove a bane to college work. What, then, is the relation of the college to the high-school in the matter of entrance examinations? On the studies that test the student's *power* as distinct from his knowledge, studies prerequisite to the course he wishes to take in college, such, for instance, as algebra and geometry, for any technical course involving higher mathematics—upon such studies as these the college may safely assume to examine its applicants for admission. Such prerequisite studies look ahead toward the college course and test the student's capacity for higher work. But, as regards the subsidiary studies, those that look behind rather than ahead, that concern the secondary school as such rather than the secondary school as a college preparatory school, surely the applicant may be admitted to college by a certificate from an affiliated school. Granting that admission by certificate is dangerous, there is certainly less danger of injustice in accepting a certificate from a worthy school than in rigid examinations that cannot adequately test a student's power.

However, as between rigid examination requirements and admission by certificate only, the Southern Association has adopted the golden mean—a course that, while encouraging the high schools to do higher and more thorough work through a wide dissemination of entrance questions, may still admit by certificate the student who has proven to competent instructors his ability to do more advanced work even though he be deficient in some of the branches ordinarily required for college entrance.

This is admirable; but in our southern college entrance requirements lies at least one grave defect; only the old conservative course of liberal arts is recognized: history, the languages, the sciences, and mathematics. No credit whatsoever is given for manual, industrial and commercial work, for civics, economics and art. Surely these last mentioned studies may give at least as adequate a preparation for college, in real power to think and do, as the studies of the old curriculum. And what else than this power have we a right to require? for what else is of genuine importance? It would seem that the real duty of our colleges toward the high schools lies not merely in in-

sistence upon more thorough work and higher standards, but in the generous recognition of these new studies as makers of capacity and as factors in the promotion of culture.

For instance, the attitude of the colleges to the high schools as regards the study of Latin might be amusing if it were not a source of menace to the usefulness of our public schools. We of the conservative southern states are slow to surrender an out-worn superstition, clinging with mighty tenacity to the Latin *fetich*. Now, that Latin when really well taught, may impart true culture, no sensible teacher can deny; but what is the real condition of Latin teaching in most of our schools and colleges? It is a mere grammatical and syntactical grind—dull, deadening and horrible, without a grain of literary appreciation or any ability to impart genuine culture. So much for the *culture* value of Latin as it is usually taught. Furthermore, that the study of Latin is really essential in itself, is prerequisite to any line of work, fulfils any function that is not as well or better discharged by other studies—this is an exploded superstition. Dr. Harris congratulates us upon the increase in the number of Latin students in the secondary schools from 34 per cent. in 1890 to 50 per cent. in 1900. This is good. But what shall we make of the corresponding figures also given out by the United States Commissioner of Education, namely, that *the number of students entering our colleges from the secondary schools had decreased from 14 per cent. in 1890 to 11 per cent. in 1900?* These be the figures; let us make the most of them.

Latin, however, is but one study and is merely a single feature of the fallacy so widely disseminated and unfortunately insisted upon by our colleges, namely, that "preparation for college" is identical with "preparation for life." It is a happy sign that this idol of the college market-place is tottering on its pedestal. As a matter of fact, as Dr. G. Stanley Hall says, fitting for college is so far from being a fitting for life that it is probably at least a temporary unfitting; for our entrance examinations as they are constituted at present are too academic, bookish, and remote from life, to afford any actual preparation for its duties. We are of course compelled to admit that the time spent on a study of the methods used in acquiring it must, to a certain extent, be determined by the purpose of the student. It is thus reasonable to grant that the student who, from the beginning of his high school course, intends to prepare for college may pursue a somewhat different course from that stu-

dent who must go out into life equipped only with high school training. But the great majority of students discover only toward the end of their high school course that they wish to enter college. Shall such students be debarred, provided that they have the training and the essential power that fit them for college work? If the preparation for college is a matter of essential power, certainly the preparation for life is also largely the ability to think and to act. So, while we must deny that at present preparation for college is essentially preparation for life, we are prepared to assert that preparation for life is, or should be, preparation for college. It is the business of our colleges simply to extend the preparation for life begun in the high schools, and our college curricula should be so adjusted that any student after pursuing satisfactory high school courses of any character—that is, courses that have trained him in essential power of thought and action, should be admitted to corresponding courses in college.

Furthermore, as has been said, the relation of our southern colleges to the public schools is largely complicated by the condition, or, to speak more correctly, by the practical non-existence of our rural high schools. As long as our students are largely recruited from the country schools where so-called preparation for college is largely limited to a little drill in languages and mathematics, and as long as these country boys continue to do good work in our colleges, we shall have to proceed very delicately in the matter of entrance examinations. It may be that in time, as the Southern States grow in wealth and population, we can evolve a system of rural high schools equal to that of New England; but at present, when the average school life in the Southern States is but two and one-half years, and one-third of our southern children have absolutely no educational opportunities whatsoever, we shall have to continue to admit many a country lad, who comes to us with a few dollars in his pockets and his one suit of clothes upon his back, not simply without rigid examinations, but possibly without even a satisfactory certificate.

This mention of the unprepared but enthusiastic rural student leads us to refer to the institution that has recently been the target for so much reproach and vituperation: the college preparatory department. It is easy to assert that this institution is an unmitigated curse; that as long as it exists the public high school will suffer; that we have no right to place the collegiate and the preparatory student under the same system of

government. It is true that the college preparatory department can not possibly do the work of the local high school; it is true that such a department often creates bad feeling and hampers the usefulness of its college; but that it is an unmitigated curse and that it has no place in our system of southern education in its present stage of development, we most strenuously deny. There are many boys who are absolutely debarred from attending any public school that would afford adequate preparation for college, who are deficient in one or more studies required for admission, and whose only hope for a college education lies in the college preparatory department. At least I know it may be so in Florida, whose high school system as it stands on paper has been called the best in "the South;" and I suspect it may be so in other Southern States. As regards the question of discipline, this is simply a matter of segregating the preparatory students so that their manners and morals may not be injured by the collegians!

But while admitting that the college preparatory department may in some sections at present be a necessity, we deplore that such should be the case and gladly acknowledge that the relation of our colleges to the public schools demands that the college shall encourage the public high school in every way possible, increase its dignity, widen its curriculum, supply it with well trained instructors, establish it in every urban, and, as far as possible, in every rural community, and magnify its importance, not merely as the preparatory school, but as the college of the people almost 90 per cent. of whose students complete their education within its walls.

If these admirable results are to be achieved, however, it is unfortunate that high school curricula should be in so unsettled a condition and that there should exist so great a misconception concerning the true function of secondary education. For, on the one hand, we have the colleges saying "Thou shalt prepare for college"—that is, shall sacrifice the interests of the many to the predilections of the few; and, on the other hand, we have the people at large and all our experts in secondary education urging with ever insistent voices that high school curricula should first of all be adapted to fit the average student for life. And yet there appears to be no true conception of what this "preparation for life" may be or what the high school curriculum should include. It would seem, to paraphrase the words of Professor Hanus, that entirely irrespective of preparation for college, the high school should stimulate every pupil to aim at

intelligent self-support; should stimulate every pupil to promote the welfare of society; should stimulate every pupil to carry on his own development whether in college or in the active work of life. If these postulates be true, we need a great broadening of our high school curricula; we need the establishment of manual, industrial, and commercial courses "that minister directly to social and vocational aims." It is significant that the report of the United States Commissioner of Education, when giving statistics about the high school status, makes absolutely no mention of these lines of work. This is the characteristic point of view of the so-called "higher education." Our colleges have not recognized the fact that while they may have been standing still, new subjects of instruction have grown up, have assumed dignity and power, and now demand recognition.

If all the foregoing be true, it would seem expedient that our colleges encourage a modification and broadening of our high school curricula along three general lines that may now be briefly indicated.

First, nothing is more significant and perhaps more disheartening in the southern high school system than our general disregard for manual and industrial training, which practically does not exist in our public high schools, but is almost entirely relegated to private institutions. In this respect we are far behind other sections of the United States, where, in most city schools, at least, manual, industrial, and commercial courses are a recognized part of the curriculum. So, while urging the necessity for broader culture in our public schools, and the obligation of these schools to train the young citizen and patriot, we must not fail to recognize the equally great necessity for a training specifically utilitarian. One of the most patent and discouraging economic facts of the day lies in the vast number of what we may call "drifters," young men and boys without any industrial training either general or specific, who drift aimlessly from one occupation to another without purpose, apparently without ambition, never rising high, never achieving definite results. Many a time we have to plead with young students to have some special aim, to gain a knowledge of some particular pursuit and to apply themselves to its mastery. Our southern boys are only too largely such "drifters." What is the cause? and wherein lies the remedy? What is the cause but defective schooling? and wherein lies the

remedy but in the public schools? While we perhaps would not urge that each boy master some particular trade, yet surely we may insist upon a certain manual and industrial training, a certain knowledge of principles, that shall enable the boy who must work for a living to work intelligently and with good results. However, work of this kind must not be divorced from broad culture. If our public schools refuse this opportunity and reject their obvious responsibility, the private schools of manual, industrial, and commercial training will take up the work with the inevitable and fatal result of that divorce between utility and culture which the college should strive above all things to prevent, and which means the degradation of educational ideals.

But, in addition to the need of such training as this, we can see in our high school curriculum another grave defect and another importunate need. This defect lies in the pathetically small attention paid by our public schools to civics, economics, and the *right kind* of history. The business of the public high school is not merely to teach the student to make a living, but to train him to be a citizen and patriot. Now, surely the necessity for civic and economic training in our public schools is glaringly apparent. Today we stand aghast at the revelation of public corruption with instances of which and their concomitant train of sordid details our periodicals overflow. It is only too evident that the vast proportion of our citizenship "knows nothing and cares less" about civic opportunities and responsibilities. Men are either blind or corrupt; instances of dishonest dealing are not far to seek; legislative bodies are becoming a hissing and a reproach. And so it is not only in politics, but in the world of finance. The "high finance" seems to have degenerated into the high art of practieing colossal fraud, and those who sit on thrones in the world of business are losing the true divinity that should hedge the king. Corruption in politics and dishonesty in business! Wherein lies the remedy for political corruption but in the training of the young citizen in our public schools? Wherein lies the remedy for business dishonesty save in the character building that should accompany every phase of educational work? By giving the young citizen, who would be a king of high finance and a leader of his fellows, the tools of his trade and the ability to use them effectively, but, at the same time and always, reminding him of the importance of using these instruments not merely for self-aggrandizement,

but also for the public weal. Such training is at least as much needed in the southern states as in any part of our country. It is the business of our colleges to encourage these patriotic studies in the public schools and to extend and broaden them in the college.¹

Finally, the relations of our colleges to our public schools demand that we should encourage something even beyond utilitarian training and the education of the young citizen, but which supplements and ministers to both in a fashion most beautiful and complete. This last and great duty is our obligation to encourage in the public schools a greater breadth of general culture. And by "culture" we mean a knowledge of the best things that have been said and done in the world, a certain refinement and grace of conduct, a delicacy of moral sensibility, a breadth of human sympathy, and an ardent love for all that is beautiful and good. When due recognition has been paid to other lines of work, surely we can still find room in our high school courses for the amenities of life. If our high school students go out from us quite blind to the beauties of the world of nature and the glories of the world of art they have perhaps forever lost the purest pleasure of life and sold their birth-right for a mess of pottage. Life is more than meat and the body than raiment; and "preparation for life" includes not merely the wherewithal of mere subsistence, the grossly utilitarian, but also a recognition of all that gives life meaning and beauty. To know something about painting, music, sculpture and poetry, is not the privilege of the few, but the birth-right of the many. Nor does this general knowledge to appreciate sufficiently the more obvious beauties of art imply any technical skill. While it may be impracticable to teach thoroughly the fine arts in our public schools, it is certainly possible in this day of popularization in matters artistic somewhat to open the eyes of our students to the beauty and meaning of art in its broader and more obvious aspects.

We hear from our students quite too much about money-making; they are taking too utilitarian a view of education. Several times within the past two years I have been astonished to hear from a number of students, among them some of the

¹On this subject I have been greatly pleased and benefited by the excellent address made last year before the Southern Association of Colleges by Prof. W. H. Heck of the University of Virginia in which he emphasizes the duty of the public schools in training the young citizen and shows the need of more practical methods for achieving this result.

best, expression of a most distorted educational ideal. They virtually say, "I am here to learn to make money." Now, this view of education has lately been too much insisted upon. That our students are gaining what they call "an education" in order not merely to support existence, but to become intelligent citizens, and enjoy the beauties of nature and art, to contribute something to the well-being of humanity, to get the best out of life—this high conception seems to labor under a still partial but ever-growing eclipse. While we are emphasizing the utilities of education and urging the necessity for industrial training, let us yet remember that utilitarianism divorced from the culture above indicated is of all things most sordid and base. The boy is not being educated simply to become a rich man, a captain of industry, a cattle king, a coal baron, a turpentine prince, a cotton lord, or a tobacco duke. To be sure he must gain a livelihood; he must not be a drone in the hive of life; he must be a worker and, if possible, a leader; but, far above this, he must be a citizen, an incorruptible patriot, a lover of his kind, an appreciator of the arts that give life its grandeur and beauty.

We may say that the colleges are the safe-guard of such culture; but what shall we do for the great mass who never reach our colleges? Shall the college arrogate to itself all ethics and æsthetics? If our colleges are the conservators of culture, as we claim, then it is their business to encourage in our southern secondary schools higher and finer ideals of education; to furnish these with college men of broad culture and high educational ideals as teachers. But this happy condition can never be realized until our college teachers shall cease to look upon the secondary teacher as a subordinate and shall cease to regard a knowledge of pedagogics as something beneath the sovereign notice of the college specialist. As a matter of fact, what student of education does not admit that if the question be one of relative values the college teacher must yield in the dignity and importance of his work to the teacher in the public school?

Such, briefly and imperfectly indicated, are the lines along which the inter-relations of our colleges and public schools may be rendered more cordial and mutually beneficial.

When the dawn comes and educational fads and fallacies are with the dead past; when worn out superstitions shall have been abandoned; when our high school curricula shall be as broad as the actual preparation for life requires; when our col-

leges shall graciously recognize in their admission requirements all high school work that has gone to the making of essential character and power; when the high school system of the southern states shall have been so perfected that the college preparatory department and the fitting school may be discontinued —then, indeed, the relations subsisting between our southern colleges and the public schools will attain the ideal, and both college and high school can intelligently cooperate without loss of energy or misdirected effort to produce the trained worker, the man of culture, and the intelligent citizen.

DISCUSSION.

Prof. W. R. Webb, Tennessee: I would like to say a few words, if the Association will permit me. I had a letter from a gentleman from—well, I will not locate him, but I want the sympathy of this audience. He wrote me he was going to send me his son, and he said he wanted me to make of him a “w-h-o-l-e-s-a-i-l” merchant. (Laughter.) Now, I had never been in a wholesale store or business, never had dealt with a “wholesale” merchant, and yet he wanted me to make his son a wholesale merchant. My friends, this is an important subject, dealing with the young men of the country.

Now, I want to say the object and purpose of schools for all times has been to teach the children to read. The twenty-six little letters of the alphabet are the greatest invention that man has ever made. It lengthens memory and experience, whereas all other inventions of man simply multiply physical force, and the limitations upon a teacher are to teach the children to read, and that is all he can do. And when we have taught them to read in the primary school, they certainly ought not to have a diploma, but they ought to be taught to read in broader and deeper lines in the high school; then in the college, then in the university and post-graduate school, and in all the professional schools. All the great judges can do is to teach their young law students to read with appreciation the principles of law, and the only thing that the men in the medical schools can do is to teach their students to read with appreciation the principles that underly medicine, and when we undertake to eliminate Latin, for instance, I just come

down to one subject, because he took that, then there is no such thing as high culture in English literature, without a knowledge of the classics. (Applause.)

There isn't a single man that can read Shakespeare with appreciation that does not know Latin. He not only can not read Shakespeare, but he can not read Milton. He can not read any of the standard authors in our literature, and you turn on the civilization of the world the youth trained up in manual training, and you turn him loose on the earth incapable of appreciating this splendid literature which our Anglo-Saxon forefathers handed down to us.

There are some teachers that teach Latin very inefficiently, but, my dear sir, did you ever see a man in science that was somewhat of a bore? That simply turns on a question. I have seen the man of science that didn't have anything to bore with. (Laughter.)

I want to protest here and now for the sake of the South. I offered my life for it, I shed my blood for it, I will shed my popularity today, if need be, in protesting against putting into a course of study so many things that you absolutely sap the juices out of youth in fitting them either for life or for college. (Applause.)

The course of study is now beyond the possibility of any ordinary youth. The demands upon teachers, and young teachers, who undertake to carry out the program of the Committee of Ten—and pardon me if my egotism comes to the front, but I was one of the sub-committee on Latin and attended that last final convention of the Committee of Ten and saw the embarrassment when they were requiring of us teachers to do in four years what required six years or more to accomplish. It just can not be done, my young teachers, and the course of study that is marked out for the high school, in the law of Tennessee, can not be done in the time required by any living man with any ordinary class of children. We have got too much required of us now. My time, I see, is out. That was an able paper that was presented; it is a work of genius, but a young man who undertakes to take an ordinary child and stuff all that into him—he can't do it. I have heard that you could stuff fowls and make them very fat, but it is fat only and there is no brain in it. (Laughter and applause.)

Mr. J. H. Fuqua, Kentucky: I see that Judge Beckner of Winchester, Kentucky, is with us. He is one of our educa-

tional wheel-horses in Kentucky, and I know you would like to hear from him.

Judge William Beckner, Kentucky: Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen—I am very grateful for the privilege of saying a word to you, and in this worshipful presence certainly I will not discuss the questions that have been presented nor say a word about the value of education, except such thoughts as I have gathered from the slight attention I have given and that you all must have gathered with your intelligence; and one is that the general things we lack in the South for an efficient system of education are money and teachers. Money will get teachers, but teachers don't get money, you know. (Laughter.)

I for many years have taught in my state and been an humble lay preacher of schools good enough for all, good enough for the best. That is the standard in the North, that their schools shall be good enough for the best, and we should provide them in every district. We have undertaken to have compulsory education. Paul says: "How shall they hear, unless they have a preacher, and how can he preach unless he be sent?" How can they learn unless they have teachers, and how can they teach unless they are trained?

First, we must have normal schools, and in Kentucky we are waging an active campaign. In Massachusetts they spend \$300,000, in New York \$590,000, Ohio \$200,000 and in the new state of Wisconsin \$200,000, in Kentucky \$4,000, in Tennessee \$40,000 I believe. But we need normal schools scattered throughout the state, and we need money to pay our teachers. For years I have given every thought of my life and every moment of my time that I could spare to this cause of education, and I have had a scheme that would have benefitted this cause. That is, to have the federal government equalize the states in the matter of land grants. The old states that gained all this territory have not gotten their share. The new states, beginning with California and running down to this time, have had two sections out of every township given to them for this cause, but the old states that fought for our liberties have not gotten it, the old states that helped to get this new territory have had no money for their schools, and I was anxious to see it equalized, and introduced the bill to equalize the matter of land grants. But I was only there a short term; I did not return—I could not return—for I was

of that class of people that thought a hundred cents on the dollar was none too good for Americans, but the good people among whom I was and whom I love and are good, honest people, were in favor of paying fifty cents on a dollar. But I have been in favor of education too long, and therefore didn't favor that. (Applause.)

I do believe in schools good enough for the best, and I do think that these old states should have justice done to them before all this large domain is given away. And if we had on this basis of territory, the area of the state, appropriated by the federal government, which has the power over the public domain, we have yet 450,000,000 acres of land, and it would only take 35,000,000 acres to equalize the states. I have been anxious to see all these states that are interested rise up and fight for their rights. Three-fourths of the members of the lower house are interested, because their states have not had justice done, and I have been anxious to see some of the great men of the South rise up, or certainly some of the Northern states should. I have been anxious to see them take up this question and see them pass a bill that would give equality in the land grants. I thank you very much for your attention.

THE DENOMINATIONAL COLLEGE IN SOUTHERN EDUCATION.

PRESIDENT HENRY N. SNYDER, Wofford College, Spartanburg, S. C.

The motive behind the foundation of the earlier denominational colleges in the South, as in other parts of the United States, was the demand for an educated ministry. However, colleges founded to train ministers not only in the special doctrines of their respective churches, but also in general culture as well, in the course of time naturally drew upon a wider patronage by inviting all the youth of the church. For the same argument for training the ministry within the fold of the church for the church could be easily pressed to include the youth of the church. Still, while thus widening the circle of their influence, the primary purpose of these first colleges was the training of the ministry.

Next there came two forces which had an indirect yet strong

influence in the establishment of new colleges; these were the growth of a national and state sentiment and an equally vigorous and assertive growth toward religious freedom, and these two went far toward preparing the way for state universities and colleges and even suggested a great central national university, which, alas! yet waits realization. Moreover, as the public school idea laid hold upon the thought of the people it seemed wholly logical to crown the newly-formed system with a college or university to complete the service of the state to its citizenship. Now this large activity on the part of the state, instead of satisfying the demands for higher education and decreasing the number of institutions of private foundation, served rather to stimulate the denominations to a new zeal in the multiplying of colleges. This zeal had now behind it, not the more limited motive of the education of the ministry, but the broader one of the education of all the youth of the church under strict denominational influence. The inauguration of the University of Virginia, for example, with its absolute religious freedom, looked to the churches more like a complete lack of religion. The fear seized them that religion was to be left entirely out of education, and that the youth of the land were to be given over to godlessness. This fear was further made real by the presence of men in certain faculties, if not hostile to Christianity, at least antagonistic to every form of denominationalism. As a matter of protection, therefore, the churches felt it their duty themselves to provide instruction for their youth. Faith was once more at stake, they thought, and the youth of the church must be saved from infidelity and the vices which were supposed to follow as a matter of course. This represents the second stage in the causes leading to the multiplying of denominational colleges in the South.

It should be noted that this attitude of the denominations toward state colleges and universities had the use of partly purging the latter of anti-Christian influences. While they might not teach definite religious doctrines, their presidents and faculties, though representing every and any form of religious belief, must be at least Christian in a general way and in a special way must care for the moral training of those committed to them. But aside from this influence, the desire and purpose of the church to safeguard its youth in matters of faith, because they believed that faith was really threatened, is no

doubt the dominant impulse in the establishing of colleges from, say, 1825 to 1860, and it gave to us our oldest and perhaps our most reputable denominational institutions.

After this time another view served to call other institutions into existence, and to strengthen the faith of the church in those already established. This view was based upon the conception that, after all, character was the chief thing in life, and therefore should be the dominant aim of education; that, further, the finest type of character was the product of definite Christian teaching; that the heart of the whole matter in education was a frank, unhesitating acceptance of Christ, His truth, and His spirit; that, in the nature of things, the individual church was the only kind of institution that could hope to realize this ideal in practice. It was held and urged that colleges of the state and those of private foundation asking a patronage regardless of denominational affiliation could not, from the very fact that they had in their faculties and student bodies men representing every form of religious belief and perhaps of unbelief, meet the requirements necessary to train and fortify youth in the highest and most enduring type of character. If this was to be the best and final product of education, the denominations must make it possible through their schools. Other kinds of institutions could not do it. Of course in the light of the new times into which we have come, when all the forces of education are striving to put an ideal of character-building at the heart of their work, these statements with reference to the attitude of the churches sound a bit like a far-fetched page of ancient history and a call to memory of the clamorous contentions from an old educational battleground. It is not to say that the churches were right in affirming that the colleges of the state were powerless to furnish such training as would thoroughly moralize their instruction and set before students the supreme Christian ideal of character. It is to say, however, that this is the way the churches looked at the matter, and furnished therefore yet another strong motive for the maintenance of denominational colleges and the founding of new ones.

It is clear, moreover, that the question has shifted somewhat. It is leading away from the original purpose of an educated ministry and specific instruction in the dogmas of individual creeds into the larger matter of what is the best method of getting the Christian spirit and Christian ideals of character

into education. We may all differ as to whether the church has found the best method of accomplishing this end, or as to really what is the best method. But all probably agree that at least the purpose of the church was in the right direction, and now, since we have a perspective almost removed from the heat and din and confusion of some rather unseemly educational conflicts and have arrived at a position where we are unanimous in the thought that the function of the college is not only to train for practical efficiency, but also to develop and fortify the religious nature and shape the characters of men according to Christian ideals, we can grant to the church its inestimable benefit in holding us more or less steadily to this position when we might have gone far astray in our zeal to be un-religious in the quality of our instruction. Against this un-religion in education the church has protested loudly and unceasingly, and its institutions have been the concrete witnesses in the affirmation of its educational faith. And their contribution in this respect has been a great and important contribution to our entire system of education in the South, particularly to higher education. Through it we dare not now leave religious considerations out of any phase of our educational scheme. Moreover, I do not feel that I am overstating the case when I say that we not only owe this, in part, to the denominational college, but also that we are in a better condition to meet that latest demand of the best educational thought, which takes as the fundamental article of its creed that we may count all else as loss if character be not the final product of all our schemes, all our systems, all our methods of education.

As is well known, these dominant causes were strong enough so to dot the South with colleges that one might in truth say that this is a college-ridden section. They are of every conceivable sort as to property, equipment, resources, and faculties. To get something like an adequate idea of them we shall have to depend upon the report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1903. Yet we should say that some qualifications are necessary in using data from this source. It is two years old to start with, and much substantial progress has been made in this time; some reports go back as far as 1901; and some institutions are not reported at all. Moreover, as one examines this report, as invaluable as it is, one finds enough inaccuracies to raise a feeling of distrust as to its facts and figures. However, with due allowance, one can get from it a

fairly adequate notion of the situation of denominational institutions in relation to certain aspects of education in the South. It should be said also that no effort will be made properly to classify these institutions. While many of them, no doubt, deserve no higher rating than that of secondary schools, yet they will be accepted at their own valuation in this discussion.

In the thirteen Southern States there are as many as 90 denominational colleges for men, most of them, however, having the coeducational feature. This gives an average of seven to each state. Tennessee and Missouri notably leading with 15 each. In the aggregate, these 90 institutions have in their collegiate departments 943 professors and 7,549 men students and 2,177 women; they also have in their preparatory departments 5,270 boys and 3,633 girls, with a teaching force of 411; they report 198 graduate students and 3,428 in professional departments. The grand total is 1,354 instructors and 24,255 students, men, women, boys and girls. Taking for the sake of comparison the state colleges in these states, we find, exclusive of mechanical and agricultural institutions, 680 instructors in the colleges, and the number of students foots up 3,588 men and 768 women; in preparatory departments 600 men and 148 women, with a teaching force of 32; graduate students, 167, and professional students, 2,173. These figures give totals of 721 instructors and 7,347 students. This is to say, that there are three and one-third as many students in the 90 denominational colleges as there are students in the 13 state colleges, or nearly 80 per cent. of the entire number. These figures give, if nothing else, the extent of the influence of the denominational colleges. Whatever the nature of the training they furnish, it touches for better or worse the most people in this southern country.

It is when we turn to material equipment and resources that we realize most the limitations of the denominational college. For example, in the general matter of property, the 90 colleges give an aggregate of values to the amount of \$13,165,311; the thirteen state colleges, \$5,951,349; the latter have libraries footing up 437,000 volumes, the former 918,436; in scientific apparatus and equipment the colleges supported by the state furnish a valuation of \$860,649; those of the church only \$945,095. That is to say, the valuation of the physical equipment of the 90 church institutions is hardly more than twice that of the thirteen state institutions. This deficiency becomes

all the more glaring if we take out the three or four denominational colleges whose equipment really equals or surpasses that of the largest and best state colleges.

As to endowment, we reckon the total for the denominational colleges to be \$9,591,528, and that of the state colleges to be \$4,808,730. Here, again, however, two things are to be considered: First, a few denominational institutions have comparatively large endowments, thus greatly reducing the proportion among the rest; and, secondly, the large annual appropriations by the state for current expenses make similar assessments by some of the churches seem hardly worth counting. Now the income from endowment and appropriations to the state colleges reaches a total of \$980,662; that to the denominational colleges, \$797,488. However, there is a striking and notable difference in the incomes from tuition fees, small colleges receiving more annually from this source than their corresponding state colleges with considerably more students. The denominational colleges receive from this source \$740,288; the state colleges only a total of \$174,842. It is clear from this that, while the churches have been far from either adequately equipping or endowing their institutions, they have made partial compensation through a tuition-fee paying patronage. And this is a considerable gain.

Now to sum up the physical aspect of the denominational colleges in the mass, we may say that, including property, libraries, scientific apparatus, and endowment, these colleges represent invested capital to the amount of \$23,601,931, and their total income from all sources is \$1,437,726. These sums are immense in the aggregate, though they shrink into pittances when divided among 90 institutions. They measure, however, the faith, zeal and activities of the church in what it regards as a special and necessary kind of education. We have a right to ask whether so much capital has been wisely invested, whether, in a word, denominational education as we understand it is worth all that has been put into it. The answer to these questions leads naturally to some considerations with reference to the influence of denominational education.

In the first place, these colleges have been what we call small colleges. In a true sense, moreover, they have been colleges of the people. Planted in country places, or small towns or villages, their patronage has been mainly local, or drawn from a comparatively narrow circle, rarely going beyond state lines.

They have thus brought education to the people who might not have gone out to seek it. In this even a superficial observer will see that they have served as tremendous social, intellectual and moral uplifting forces in special sections, doing a work, I am persuaded, no other kind of institution could have done. This phase of their influence is well described by that acute and sane observer, Mr. James Bryce, in his American Commonwealth (vol. 2, p 568): "They set learning in a visible form, plain, indeed, and humble, but dignified even in her humility, before the eyes of a rustic people, in whom love of knowledge, naturally strong, might never break from the bud into the flower but for the care of some zealous gardener. They give the chance of rising in some intellectual walk of life to many a strong and earnest nature who might otherwise have remained an artisan or store-keeper, and perhaps failed in these avocations. They light up in many a country town what is at first only a farthing rushlight, but which, when the town swells to a city, or when endowments flow in, or when some able teacher is placed in charge, becomes a lamp of growing flame, which may finally throw its rays over the whole state in which it stands."

This has been and will still continue to be a part of the general mission and influence of the denominational colleges. With scant resources in most instances, meagre equipment and a limited faculty in point of numbers, they have trained men through the discipline of a few fundamental studies into intellectual mastery and through the dominating influence of the church they have kept before their students high ideals of Christian character. They have insisted that if both intellectual power and moral power are to be fully effective, the one must be thoroughly moralized and the other thoroughly intellectualized. And who shall say, whatever method we may pursue, that this conception is not worth preserving and strengthening in our educational thinking and practice? Anyway, without losing sight of moral training through Christian teaching, the denominational colleges have also served largely to intellectualize the life of their constituency, and their constituency has been the majority of people in the South.

Further, the denominational college has been and is an effective element in popular education through the agencies it is able to use in reaching the people. Every one knows how largely the mere matter of propaganda enters into the whole

question of education at the South. It frequently resolves itself into the simple proposition of how we shall reach the masses, convince them, win them, and move them to action. You can not always get at them through the newspapers, or indeed through legislative enactments. The appalling amount of illiteracy in the South is not as shocking in statistical reports as it is when we are meeting it actually alive in men and women. Here, in the wholly illiterate who see but dimly, you have a great inert, if not positively hostile, power which has to be overcome before they will pay taxes, build school houses, or indeed send their children to school. Clearly in dealing with such as these we shall be put to our best resources to get the educational idea to work as a sort of leaven. We shall not be able to do it by dint of logical reasoning on the advantages of education or by an eloquent description of that fine vision which now and again comes to us all in our optimistic moments—a vision of an intelligent, trained democracy doing the world's work in the noble glow of altruistic motives. Quite other methods must be used. Indeed, not one, but many, methods will be found necessary, and even then the leavening process will lag painfully, and it will require all the optimism and faith we have to trust to the slow results of time. There is an imperative necessity, therefore, for educational missionary work and for employing without stint every agency that can possibly be used to get at the mass of people.

Now I ask, What has the denominational college to do with this all-important propaganda-missionary phase of the Southern educational problem? I answer much. In the first place, it is at the head of a church system that uses all its machinery for active, persistent educational propaganda—a propaganda that, while appealing to religious motives, is becoming less and less colored with what has been called sectarianism, that has nothing to do with church doctrine as this is generally understood, and all to do with the larger question of human betterment through education—education for all the people. The denominational college, then, has at its command, at least in the three largest churches in the Southern States—Methodist, Baptist and Presbyterian—organized boards, into whose hands is given the important duty of systematic educational campaigning, if the phrase may now be allowed. The chief aim is to bring education before the people and to put it deeply upon their conscience. The Southern Methodist Church furnishes

a notable example of what has been done in this respect. Only a few years ago it was engaged in an officially authorized movement toward general and higher education, conducted with great earnestness and enlisting the very best talent at the command of the church. All of its resources for reaching the people were brought into use, and there is probably not a corner of the South, by mountain and by swamp, where the moral, indeed, the religious duty of education, was not preached and enforced. A sort of popular educational "revival" was attempted in order to mark the incoming of the new century and to show, from the standpoint of the church, the thing most needed. The definite measurable results were the raising of more than a million and a half dollars for educational purposes and a large increase in the number of students attending schools controlled by the church. But we have absolutely no way of measuring adequately the far more important results which must come from the bringing of the fundamental matter of education before all classes of people with the force and authority of the Christian church. Everywhere in the South there are more children in the schools, there are better school houses and better teachers and teaching, and, what is greatly worth while in the present stage of the problem—education! education! education! is still ringing in the ears of the people as never before.

But it is not only through educational boards that the church is able to get the matter before the people. The individual preacher is himself a sort of educational missionary. Take the Southern Methodist Church once more for the purpose of illustration: Four times a year every preacher must answer to his superior officer this significant question, What is doing in the bounds of your work for the cause of education? It reminds him with regular persistency of his duty, as a moral leader in his community, to look after the interests of the common schools and to urge attendance. Thus with a proper knowledge of needs and conditions he can be a potent force in the educational problem. If he carries out faithfully the spirit and aim of his church, he is such a force.

Now back of these agencies—organized special movements, regular boards for educational propaganda, and the individual work of the preacher as a missionary in the high cause of bringing a kind of intellectual gospel to the people through the school house—is the denominational college as the real brain and di-

recting force. What the college is, what are its educational ideals, what is its efficiency, what is its conception of its mission as a college of and for the people, how far it regards itself as the source from which all the efforts of the church to make education a real factor in the life of its membership shall receive their constant inspiration and wisest direction—all measure the vital and intimate relation of the denominational college to this problem of popular education. Indeed, when one takes into view all the elements involved, there is certainly no other single agency more vitally and intimately related.

But the denominational college has been and is itself directly active in trying to arouse interest not only with reference to itself, but also with reference to the general question of education. This it regards as a part of its mission. If the people do not value education, if they will not seek it, the college, as an essential part of a great church whose aim is the uplifting of men, endeavors of necessity to do its share by going out after them and taking to them what they really need, regardless of their indifference or indeed of their hostility. It makes education a matter of religion, holding unfalteringly to the belief that Christ came to put men on their feet, and one step in this is to make them more intelligent and wiser, and to train them to do in the best possible way a full amount of the world's work—not one man, not a group or sect of men, but all men. This is the high motive under which the better type of the denominational colleges has striven and is striving unceasingly to create among the masses what is called an *educational conscience*. Many of them on this account keep an agent actively in the field—a man whose duty is suggestively defined when we call him a sort of evangelist of education—a greatly needed evangelist, any one must say who knows eye to eye and heart to heart the people with whom one must deal in the South, and the general nature of the problem. It is a total misunderstanding of the college agent to think of him merely as a "drummer" for boys. He is very much more than this. He is usually a man of popular address, and his influence in drawing ambitious and capable boys to college and in awakening public sentiment in the matter of education simply can not be overestimated. His very position gives him free access to homes, to platforms, and to pulpits, and thus, in very truth, he is a missionary—a home missionary—in one of the highest of human causes. Through him, boys fresh from

the heart of the people, are induced to take up higher education; through him education generally, the building up of local schools, the sending of children to them regardless of the weather or the demands of the crops, are all made matters of conscience, of religious duty as well as of individual and public expediency. If I had space, I could add here to the fine romance of education that gathers about almost every American college, a number of stirring incidents not only of boys fired to an heroic struggle for educational betterment and finally winning a large manhood and a full measure of worldly success, but also of whole communities so awakened in conscience and effort that such superior school facilities were established as, in a few years, to transform the entire community life into something higher than it was—all through the single visit of a representative of a denominational college who knew at first hand the temper and point of view of the people he was trying to help and was therefore able to get at them and move them as no other could. All of this shows once more how vitally the denominational college is connected with that very important problem of reaching men on the question of education.

Now let us turn to another side of the subject. In having all these agencies for reaching the masses, the denominational college draws from its constituency a large body of choice young men and women. These are brought into contact with higher education; not, to be sure, of the sort to be had at Yale or at Harvard; yet of a sort with sufficient virtue in it to train the brains and give wise direction to energies that are today re-making the South in every department of activity. The colleges get the raw material of a pure, unwasted American stock; they develop the latent power in this material, give to it definite purposes, train it to work efficiently, awaken it to broader ideals, and send the men who make up this material back to their respective communities as examples and leaders—leaders in sections, where, from the very nature of the case, the chief want is a want of the right kind of leadership, not only leadership in all that makes generally for the higher life of the community but also, in particular, a leadership for better educational facilities. But not all of these young men go back to their native sections. There are those who continue their education at the universities and are called to larger duties and wider spheres of activity.

These considerations, then, seem to make the denominational

college an unusually important element in the Southern educational problem—particularly at its present stage; the preponderating number of students in these colleges shows how close they are to the people and consequently to popular education; they are the heads, in their respective churches, of systematic educational propaganda; they have all the machinery of the church at their command for reaching the people and for using the religious motive as an appeal in favor of education; they even keep special agents in the field doing a sort of missionary work in putting the “educational idea” into the thought and upon the conscience of the masses; they draw choice young men and women from their constituency and either send them back to become trained leaders there or prepare them for wider fields of activity.

Now what of the future? Without assuming any of the qualities of a prophet, it seems to me that the stream of tendency points to the strengthening of those colleges whose history and present condition give promise of assured permanency. Few, if any, new ones will be established. The law of the survival of the fittest, assisted by a broader and saner and more expert educational thought on the part of the churches will cut off the weak, strengthen the strong, and prevent any needless and wasteful multiplying of others. The splendid support and equipment which the states will give and ought to give to their institutions will serve as a fruitful stimulus to the churches to be more active than ever in the matter of endowments and physical resources and needs. The relations between the three kinds of institutions, church, private and state, will grow more and more harmonious, each occupying its own field, supplementing, assisting, and even correcting, where needed, the work of the other. Each will join cordially in the noble words of President McLean of the State University of Iowa: “To draw civilization out of the depths of ignorance we need the three-fold cord of private, church and state education. In the never-ending contest of liberty with tyranny we must have the same three-fold cable to make a cordon against the dominance of tyranny. When the private institution is constrained to hamper freedom under the pressure of a private patron, or the church institution to sacrifice freedom to ecclesiastical policies or dogmas, then we must turn to the state for freedom. When the politicians would constrain freedom in the state institution, we must depend upon the one or the other

of the first two institutions to save the day. The community of interests among these institutions, each having a special cause for existence, is greater than their diversity of interests. It is as shameful for the institutions of culture not to have cordial relations and propagate 'sweetness and light' as it is for the so-called Christian denominations to quarrel. There is enough work for all."

A PLEA FOR SOME OLD IDEALS.

PRESIDENT HENRY LOUIS SMITH, Davidson College, Davidson, N. C.

No life-history runs with even flow from age to age. In the geologic history of our globe long periods of stability alternated with shorter ones of intense and revolutionary activity. From their long inaction the forces of change seemed to gather irresistible strength, and when their hour came, the established order of things was shaken to pieces like a house of cards, the physical aspect of the earth was transformed, and whole races of plants and animals gave place to a new fauna and flora.

The same law of growth is seen in the life of the individual. How often does one hour of memorable conflict, of heart-breaking sorrow, of overwhelming responsibility transform the careless, laughing boy into the mature and thoughtful man, or change the strength and vigor of maturity into the feebleness and decadence of age. In these momentous periods a day may do the work of years. We measure them "by heartbeats, not by figures on a dial."

So, in the normal development of national life, even the careless student of history notes long periods of rest, stability, fixed conditions, dominant conservatism, during which the forces of change seem dominant. Then, oftentimes suddenly and without warning, the crust of established habit and fixed forms is torn to pieces as by a volcanic outburst. The hitherto solid ground is rent, the ancient landmarks disappear, old opinions, creeds, usages, standards, habits, prejudices, social forms, are fused into a fluid magma to re-crystallize into new forms of individual and national life.

These are the turning points in a nation's history, when

every hour is big with fate, and the Eternal Future is molded on the clangor anvil of the Present.

Such is the crisis, my fellow citizens of the South, through which the fair land of our birth is passing today. Like some gallant ship, freighted low with her precious cargo, following the chart of her fathers, she has for generations kept her straight course through storm and calm. Now, amid the rattle of machinery, the roar of her engines, and the feverish activity of the crew, she is tacking ship, and swinging outward with increasing speed over a new and untried course.

The very bustle and activity which accompany the movement so absorb the attention that some of us may not realize the fact that this is a momentous transition-period in the life of the South, that the habits and ideals of a whole people are being transformed in a single generation.

The old isolation of the South is forever at an end. Her position, the homogeneity of her people, the institution of slavery, the criticism of her neighbors, all conspired to keep the old South apart from the rest of the civilized world.

Now, we are plunged pell-mell into the rushing current of the world's life and thought, our expanding trade is bringing us into close relationship with every country on the globe, and when the great canal is dug, the South will be the gateway of the commerce of the world.

The old social and domestic life of the South is being transformed before our eyes. Her rural life, her country homes, the old household with its retinue of loyal family servants, the quiet village where all were neighbors—these have given place to the hotel, the club, the city flat, the swarming tenement village, the rented house, and hired help.

The old quiet, agricultural life of the South has given place to a very fever of modern industrialism, a delirium of money-making. Our blue sky is darkened by the smoke of countless factories, our villages are becoming cities, our railways are clogged with freight, and the very children begin to talk of stocks, bonds, profits and dividends.

The old poverty of the South, whose stern tuition taught many a lesson of heroic self-sacrifice, is gone forever, and our people are intoxicated with this new wine of luxury and increasing wealth.

With this rushing flood of Mammon worship has sprung up

a new cult—the worship of Success. Our fathers bowed at the shrine of Character, they admired a man for what he *was*; the new South has enthroned *Achievement* and asks first what a man can *do* or has *done*.

These idols of the marketplace have been set up in the very temple of learning, and are altering the whole spirit and ideal of education. The old cultural education is giving place to industrial training, and a score of orators are lecturing throughout the South on "The Money Value of an Education."

The system of Southern education is changing even more rapidly than its spirit. The great American public school system, undervalued and condemned by our fathers, is developing on our soil like a banyan tree, and taking possession of every grade of instruction from the kindergarten to the university.

The politics of the South is also in unstable equilibrium, in a transition stage. Although forced by the overwhelming menace of her great problem to vote as a unit in local matters, any tyro can see that the so-called solid South is today, on all national questions of government and finance, a liquid sea, whose bewildering tidal currents not even the professional politician can predict from one presidential campaign to another.

Nor has the all-pervading spirit of change spared the spiritual, ethical, religious life and thought of the South. Her old-fashioned reverence for religion, for ministers and churches, for God's Word and for the Sabbath day, is being undermined and swept away by a flood of new ideas, new standards, new doubts, and a new cosmopolitan indifference.

So, in these piping times of peace, amid the stir and bustle of trade and commerce, and the busy hum of a thousand factories, the South is once more a vast battlefield, and on the issue of the conflict is staked the future character of her civilization.

In pressing home the pregnant importance of such a crisis in our national life, let me not be misunderstood. It is no time for pessimism, for helpless repining, or for discouragement. Such a period is a bugle-call to action that should stir the most inert to patriotic service. It is a time when old chains are broken, old anchors weighed, old barriers swept away; when the hard crust of tradition and inherited prejudice is melted; when men's minds are plastic, mobile, impressible.

It is a time for hopefulness as well as for activity; when

long-standing evils may be annihilated, hoary wrongs righted, and useless lumber cast aside; when willing hands can be trained to higher service, willing feet led into better paths, willing minds and hearts stirred to a loftier purpose.

Yet no one can deny that it is a time fraught with danger to all that is purest and highest and most distinctive in Southern civilization, and before this audience I wish to make a plea for some of the old ideals of our fathers, for the chivalry and courtesy and open-hearted hospitality of the Old South, for the old spirit of reverence—reverence for womanhood, for the Word of God, for sacred things, for the marriage bond, for manly virtue and maidenly purity. I plead for the inwrought religious spirit of the Old South, its sense of personal dignity and personal honor, its lofty scorn of falsehood, trickery and meanness, its ethical standards, and code of personal morality.

I wish to reaffirm what the Old South believed in the time of her greatest glory, and what the shades of her mighty dead still teach from storied urn and monumental granite—that the foundation of all true greatness, whether of an individual or a nation, is *moral*, not material. Our possessions, our houses and lands, our railroads and factories, our cannon and battleships, are but *dirt*—among them national *character* rises like a marble shaft amid piles of rubbish. The question of deepest moment is not what we *have* but what we *are*. National wealth may come and go, national power may wax and wane; the passing centuries are changing national customs in dress, manners, architecture and modes of government—but the great moral judgments of the world, moral standards, moral laws, moral ideals—these stand unchanged from age to age. They are like some granite cliff, overlooking a stormy sea. At its base the tide ebbs and flows, the sea ripples in music or roars in anger; its summit is covered alternately with summer's flowers or winter's snow, against its rocky face the sun shines or the tempests beat—yet earthquake and storm but settle it more firmly on its eternal base, and when each short-lived tumult has subsided, it still looks out unchanged over land and sea. No transient splendor of accumulated wealth can make a nation truly rich or truly great. Its *invisible* assets must be counted up—civic honor and purity, height of national ideals, capacity for heroism and self-sacrifice, commercial honesty and domestic virtue, diffused moral culture, treasures of manhood and womanhood—these can not be measured by long lists of

industrial enterprises, by so many dollars per capita of manufactured products, nor even by percentages of literacy and illiteracy.

The present industrial prosperity of the South is the wonder of the world, our people are intoxicated with money-making, the smoke of our factories darkens the sky, and our financial strength is growing by leaps and bounds.

Yet when was the South richest? In the political economy of heaven, judged by its unerring standards of value, taking stock of all her assets, visible and invisible, tangible and intangible, material and spiritual, temporal and eternal, when did the sum total reach a maximum?

I believe in my soul it was amid the gloom and horror of defeat in 1865. We picture the South of that momentous time as "ruined," "devastated," "impoverished," and so in a shallow sense she was. Her man-made wealth was gone, her industrial system annihilated, her long-established social order shaken to pieces, her stately homes in ruins, the flower of her manhood dead on the field of honor, and the right of self-government torn from her grasp—the sun of her great national hope had set behind the hills of Appomattox, night and chaos had come together, and amid the appalling wreckage of the past she faced a future through whose darkness no eye could discern the glimmer of a coming day!

Yet, here, as everywhere, adversity wrought a glorious work. Those four years of conflict and disaster, of hopeless struggle against a world in arms, of bitter loss and stern self-denial, bred in the South a race of heroes. This furnace of affliction, these rough blows on the anvil of war added to the old-time chivalry and grace of the South the vigor and resilience of tempered steel.

So, when the darkness fell, the Southern heavens blazed with a constellation of starry virtues never seen by day. Fortitude grown superhuman through years of suffering, self-sacrifice become a second nature, courage nurtured into sublimity by ceaseless conflict with overwhelming odds, love of country, always burning in the Southern heart, now blown by the breath of War into an all-consuming flame, fraternal feeling heightened and glorified by constant comradeship in suffering and partnership in noble deeds, resignation taught by unspeakable loss and bereavement, religious reverence grown habitual through the constant presence of death, glorious womanhood

that buried the dead, nursed the wounded, cheered on the living, sacrificed all for the Cause, and crowned with her love and sympathy the heroes of defeat, purified and ennobled manhood, that left the inspiration of battle-flags and martial music for the harder task of rebuilding the devastated South and preserving her civilization amid the horrors of reconstruction—*These* were the assets of the Old South, her priceless treasures piled high in the Bank of Heaven, when the maelstrom of war had engulfed all her material possessions. Will the children of the new era retain them amid the intoxication of growing wealth and luxury? Prosperity is a severer test of a people's true character than adversity. Will the New South stand the tropic sunshine as their fathers did the storm? Vegetables grow best in sunshine and balmy air; the finer growths of manhood, alas! are often blighted by the sun, and wither away under a cloudless sky.

If the old spiritual and moral ideals of our people are to be replaced by cold, shrewd, tireless, triumphant commercialism; if liberal culture, ethical standards, and true moral greatness are to be sacrificed on the altar of Mammon; if growing wealth and luxury are to culminate in gross materialism—then God pity the land of Washington and Jefferson, of Lee and Jackson! In that case, though our air is vibrant with humming spindles, and our land gridironed with busy railroads, and a millionaire's palace crowns every hill, yet the true glory of the South will be in her glorious past.

tional prosperity. With all my heart I congratulate the South on the swift development of her resources and the marvelous activity and success of her new industrial life. I rejoice in the fact that the day of her long and bitter struggle with crushing poverty has passed away forever, and that the wealth of the world is beginning to fill her coffers. Yet God forbid that the children of the New South, intoxicated with this new wine of wealth, should think that a nation's greatness is measured by dollars per capita, and should throw away, as out of date, the priceless spiritual treasures, the family jewels of the old home, because, forsooth, their setting is a little behind the times.

We may grow so *broad* as to lose all our *height*—so tolerant and appreciative of all religions as to have none of our own—so debased by Mammon-worship as to measure manhood by its

power of making money, and to feel amply repaid for the loss of manly honor or the fair fame of womanhood, if the courts but assess sufficient damages—so deafened by the ceaseless chatter of our factories as to be unable to hear “the choir invisible, Whose music is the gladness of the world.”

Our cosmopolitan visitors, while admiring our growing commerce and expanding industries, smile at our old-fashioned ideas of morality and religion, and declare that the South, in these matters, is still fifty years behind the times. Yes, in some things, thank God, we are not yet up-to-date. The South in many ways is an old-fashioned part of the country—hopelessly so, we trust.

It is still, in the main, a land of old-fashioned people who make their money slowly and honestly, and leave their doors unlocked at night, of old-fashioned homes where husbands and wives love one another in the old-fashioned way, and are simple enough to live together till death breaks the old-fashioned bond. It is a land of old-fashioned ideas of womanly proprietey, and of a medieval reverence for womanhood now hopelessly out of date.

Above all, it is a land of old-time religion, where atheists are unknown, and a minister is reverenced just because he is a minister, and every word of the Bible is thought to be true; where the little children say “Our Father” every night at their mother’s knee, and are old-fashioned enough to keep on saying it till their own steps are tottering and their hair gray. It is a land of old-fashioned death-beds, made radiant and triumphant by the antiquated notion that a blood-bought soul is going home to glory, and of old-fashioned comfort and resignation, which, ignorant of Evolution and the Reign of Law, lifts its streaming eyes to heaven, lays its throbbing heart on the bosom of infinite love, and says, “It is the Lord; let Him do what seemeth unto Him best.”

Let the utilization of our wonderful natural resources continue, let mighty industrial enterprises testify to the ability of our citizens, let the land echo with the throb of engines and the rattle of machinery, let every mountain cataract be yoked to the service of man, let our wide fields grow whiter with fleecy cotton, more golden with ripening grain, more stately with waving corn, smiling back in still more fruitful beauty to our sunny skies. Let the wealth of the world flow through a thousand channels among our people till leisure, and culture, and

material comfort lift the heavy burden of hopeless toil from every home! But let the old personal honor and personal dignity of our fathers be the heritage of their busier sons; let the old-time courtesy and hospitality hold its place in spite of business cares and sordid haste to be rich. Let the scorn of the old-time gentlemen for trickery and meanness and ill-gotten wealth hold our generation back from the temptations of modern business life; let the old moral and ethical standards of the South prove a bulwark against the onrushing flood of luxury, frivolity and shallow Mammon-worship; let the ingrained reverence and spiritual insight of our fathers still touch the petty things of everyday light with a glow from the skies. And above all, let the deep religious spirit of the Old South consecrate her wealth to the service of God and man, purify her politics, her homes, and her ideals, sweeten into loving fraternity the relationship of rich and poor, make her future civilization the blessing and admiration of the world, and yoke her material destiny to the chariot wheels of the eternal purpose.

“And cast in some diviner mold,
Let the new Cycle shame the old!”

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

Thursday Afternoon, Nov. 23.

The meeting was called to order in the Fogg High School building at 3 o'clock by President J. H. Sickle, Superintendent of City Schools, Baltimore, Md. In the absence of the secretary, Professor N. W. Walker of the University of North Carolina was asked to act as secretary of this department.

Superintendent J. H. Phillips, City Schools, Birmingham, Ala., read a very thoughtful paper on "The Training of Teachers in Local Training Schools." Mr. Phillips discussed this topic under three divisions: (1) The advantages, (2) the defects, (3) the essential conditions of the local training school. As this paper, together with all others read before this department, will be found in full as a part of these proceedings no synopsis will be given.

Hon. M. Bates Stephens, State Superintendent of Maryland, read a very suggestive paper on "The County Superintendent in the School Room."

The next paper was read by Superintendent T. B. Ford, Trenton, Mo. This paper evoked a good deal of discussion *pro et con.* It was moved by Professor Davis of Roanoke, Va., and seconded, that a committee of three be appointed to study the question of student government and report on same at our next annual meeting. The president stated he would announce this committee later. The president appointed the following committee on nominations: Superintendent J. H. Phillips, Birmingham, Ala., chairman; Superintendent Z. V. Judd, Wake County, N. C., Superintendent E. H. Mark, Louisville, Ky.

The meeting adjourned.

Friday Afternoon, Nov. 24.

The meeting was called to order in the Fogg High School building at 3 o'clock by the president, Superintendent J. H. Van Sickle, of Baltimore.

Superintendent C. B. Gibson, City Schools, Columbus, Ga., read a paper on "The Introduction of Manual Training Into City Schools."

Professor Fred J. Orr, State Normal School, Athens, Ga., read a paper on "Manual Training in Rural Schools."

Professor McKean of Kentucky offered a resolution memorializing Congress to appropriate ten million dollars for educational investigation and research and for the establishment of experiment schools throughout the United States. This was referred to the committee on resolutions.

Owing to a misunderstanding on the part of some of the members Superintendent Ford was asked to state briefly the particular kind of student government he had in mind in his discussion yesterday. Mr. Ford complied with this request. The president then appointed the following committee to study the question of student government and report on same at our next annual meeting: Superintendent J. H. Phillips, Birmingham, Ala.; Superintendent T. B. Ford, Trenton, Mo.; Professor N. W. Walker, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C.

In accordance with the recommendations of the Committee on Nominations the following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

President—C. B. Gibson, Superintendent City Schools, Columbus, Ga.

Vice-President—T. B. Ford, Superintendent City Schools, Trenton, Mo.

Secretary—N. W. Walker, Professor of School Organization, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C.

J. H. VAN SICKLE, President.

N. W. WALKER, Secretary.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN LOCAL TRAINING SCHOOLS.

By SUPERINTENDENT J. H. PHILLIPS, Birmingham, Ala.

The preparation of the teacher is one of the fundamental problems of present-day education. There was a time, and that not very long ago, when the sole requirement for teaching consisted of text-book knowledge. Even yet the idea is too prevalent that the essential condition for entrance into the teaching profession is ability to pass the required state examination, and that students direct from the high school or the female seminary are prepared for entrance into the ranks of teachers. In too many of our normal schools and summer institutes the chief interest of the young teacher is preparation, not for teaching, but for examination. In a sense, this fact is to be deplored, yet in a particular stage of the teacher's development it may be regarded as natural and quite necessary. Especially is this true where the opportunities for academic training have been limited. But the training of teachers today does not mean mere academic training; it does not mean mere ability to pass the required examination. It includes these, plus something else; and in this something else, is involved the real success of the teacher and the true progress of the school.

Among the several agencies for the preparation of teachers, the local training school occupies an important place. In many of our cities, a very large percentage of the teachers of elementary grade are obtained from the local normal training school. In some city school systems all the teachers, with rare exceptions, are their own products. It is well to note at the outset that there is a broad distinction between the local training school and the state normal school. The former is the out-growth of the specific needs of the local school system. In its origin it is the offspring of the teachers' meeting and the Saturday Institute; it would never have been called into being but for the fact that intelligent supervision had demonstrated the need of special preparation. The normal school, on the other hand, is usually the creature of the state, and as such, essays to cover a wider field, and professes to give a more general and a more comprehensive training. It must provide for the needs of all the schools of the state, rural as well as urban. The local training school is limited in the scope of its training to local needs and requirements. To this limitation may be attrib-

uted both its conspicuous advantages and its most glaring defects.

In this paper I shall treat the topic under three divisions—the advantages, the defects, and the essential conditions of the local training school.

I. Specific Advantages—

The training of the pupil teacher is consecutive. There is no abrupt transition from the academic work of the high school to the professional course of the training school. The school system is an organic whole, and the mechanism of all its parts is constructed with special regard to harmony and consistency. When the pupil teacher enters the training school she is already familiar with the methods and requirements of the elementary schools. Her personal knowledge of the facts and conditions of the local school system constitutes a body of experience which will prove an excellent basis for specific professional work. During her elementary school she has passed through the hands of a number of teachers, and, consciously or unconsciously, she has formed a sort of composite ideal of what the teacher of an elementary school ought to be, at least on the practical side. She has profited by the cultural development of the high school and is now in a mental condition to enter upon a systematic study of the principles underlying the concrete facts with which she is so familiar, and is prepared to develop into a more complete outline the ideal already formed. The local training school has a very positive advantage in thus dealing with pupils who have already traveled over the precise road, whose difficulties and intricacies are to be explained.

2. The second advantage of the local training school is the fact that the preparation is for specific work. In this respect it has a distinct advantage over the state normal school. The young pupil at eighteen years of age is too immature to apply the broad principles and generalizations of educational philosophy to an indefinite number of dissimilar conditions. The specific application of these principles to a set of known facts and conditions and to forms of organization already familiar, is comparatively easy, and enables the pupil teacher to gain definite power and practical skill in actual work. The more limited the field, the greater will be the skill acquired.

3. In the local training school, the pupil teacher has the opportunity for testing her knowledge of methods and her power to apply principles, not in the usual model school, but in

one of the elementary schools of the city, where the conditions are normal. The model school of the state normal may be an ideal school; it may serve an excellent purpose, but it seldom presents normal conditions. A class in one of the elementary city schools, on the other hand, is apt to present conditions that are natural; here the pupil faces the precise difficulties she must overcome as a teacher. There is a distinct advantage in thus grappling with these real difficulties under the direction and supervision of a critic teacher upon whose skill and helpful sympathy the pupil teacher may rely. The pupil teacher whose observation and practice have been confined to the model school is apt to be disappointed and disappointing, for a time at least, when suddenly plunged into the real difficulties of an actual everyday school.

4. The local normal training school exercises a wholesome influence upon many pupils in the high school, and even in the elementary school. A pupil, even in the primary school, may look forward and find through the training school a definite avenue to practical usefulness. The purpose of the pupil is often formed before the completion of the academic course, and much useful observation may be possible before the training school stage is reached.

5. Another advantage is the fact that the training school may utilize the most promising talent in the high school. It places in the elementary schools those who are citizens—those who have social ties and who mingle with the people in helpful ways by participation in church and Sunday school work, and other community interests. This often serves to interest many people in the schools who otherwise would be indifferent.

II. Special Defects—

While we may credit the local training school, as an agency for the preparation of teachers, with peculiar advantages, we must not overlook the fact that these very advantages involve certain glaring defects, which have a tendency in the course of time to introduce deterioration and weakness. It is true that these dangers may be obviated by judicious management, but we can scarcely expect to find in the changing administrative bodies of our cities the uniform wisdom, strength and courage that will check the dangerous tendencies inherent in a system. There are at least two serious dangers involved in the operation of the local training school, against which the authorities must constantly provide.

1. In the first place, the tendency to take all, or a majority, of the teachers in a city school system from the training school ultimately leads to uniformity in thought and method, and correspondingly dwarfs the processes of the school into a lifeless machine. The pupil passes through the elementary school, graduates from the high school and enters the training school. At the end of one year, or possibly two years, she goes back as a teacher into the same elementary school, carrying with her a professional equipment that is identical with that under which she was taught. Methods of work are repeated and old devices are continued from year to year. The system tends to reproduce itself and revolves about the training school as a center without substantial progress. To counteract this tendency it is of the highest importance that the faculty of the training school shall be alert and progressive, keen to detect shams and weaknesses and ever ready to accept and assimilate new ideas. On the other hand, it is imperative that not more than one-half of the new teachers elected from year to year shall be selected from the graduates of the local training school. The other half should be selected by examination, or otherwise, from those who have had successful experience elsewhere, from graduates of state normal schools, or from graduates of training schools of other cities. If it could be found practicable, an exchange of training school graduates between two cities would be an excellent plan. At any rate, care should be taken to provide for the circulation of new, fresh blood in the school system and to prevent stagnation and degeneration.

2. The second defect of the local training school is the narrow scope of the work for which the teacher is trained. Pupils will enter the training school from the local high school, because they regard it as an easy channel for entrance into the ranks of teachers; they neither expect nor desire to teach anywhere except in their home city. They have studied only in their home schools, and there they intend to teach. This process is extremely narrowing in its influence upon the character of the teacher. Besides, the course of study in the training school, having special reference to the schools of the system of which it is an organic part, necessarily narrows the scope of the teacher's training to local conditions and requirements. While this fact may prove a temporary advantage to the young teacher, in the end it is apt to prove a misfortune to the teacher herself, as well as to the children under her charge. Such a teacher usually has no idea of conditions elsewhere; she is help-

less in a rural school, because she is wanting in independence and initiative. While apparently successful under the precise conditions for and in which she is trained, she is a pronounced failure the moment those conditions are changed. I have seen teachers who could work smoothly and happily so long as the mechanical conditions of the school were adjusted to their preparation, but who became dismal and unhappy failures when those conditions were modified. They lacked breadth of vision, as well as breadth of training; they were wanting in flexibility and in the power of self-adjustment to varying external conditions. To obviate this narrowing and dwarfing tendency, it is of the greatest importance that the course of study in the training school shall be broad and comprehensive, and that it shall cover a period of not less than two years. It is equally important that the field of observation and practice opened up for the pupil teacher during her course of training shall not be confined to the city school system in which she was trained. Arrangements should be made by which a class may have a part of its practice in the schools of other cities and in the nearby rural schools. By such means, much may be done to develop the power of adjustability to varying conditions.

III. Conditions of Successful Work by the Training School—

I shall now submit briefly a few of the conditions essential to the successful conduct of the local training school as an agency for the preparation of teachers:

1. The first essential for admission into the normal training school, naturally, should be scholarship. Unless this element of preparation is assured at the outset, both the teacher and the school system must suffer. Consequently, graduation from the high school, or from some school of equal or higher grade, should be a prerequisite.

2. Scholarship alone should not be accepted as sufficient evidence of the applicant's fitness for the work of the teacher. In view of this fact, it is wise to provide for another entrance qualification to the training school. Only those graduates should be accepted who are recommended by the high school faculty as peculiarly adapted, not alone by scholarship, but by mental and moral characteristics, by spiritual as well as intellectual qualifications. Many parents desire that their children shall become teachers, and dedicate them at an early age to that profession, either because it elevates them to a place of honor in the community, or because it appears to them to be a sort of

decent way of making a living. These children often come from homes of little culture, and beyond the knowledge acquired in the schools—a knowledge often poorly assimilated, they are in no wise fitted for the duties and responsibilities they seek. Some method of separating the grain from the chaff is indispensable, and, hard though it often may prove, the doors of the training school should be closed against those not fitted to enter.

3. During the course in the training school, some pupils will develop inaptitudes or general incapacity to meet the requirements of the school. Such pupils should be kindly advised by the principal to withdraw before graduation. Such advice is a duty the principal owes to the pupil teacher, as well as to the schools.

4. It is not the purpose here to outline a course of study to be pursued in the training school. Briefly stated, such a course should include the theory of education, a course in psychology, and a review of the subjects of the elementary school with special reference to methods of presentation. Lastly, a thorough and comprehensive course in the history of education should be given, which would enable the student to understand the evolution of educational methods.

5. The practice department of the school is an important factor. The practice should be concurrent with the work in theory. It should be comprehensive, involving all the elementary grades of the schools, and, in addition, the work of the ungraded rural schools. The work should be done under the criticism of a skilled critic teacher, or under the direction of the principal of the school. In some instances, the pupil teachers may act as substitutes, taking the places of absent teachers. In such cases, the principal of the school becomes the critic and his written report to the principal of the training school may prove a practical and helpful factor. The course of study in the training school, including the theoretical and the practical work, should require at least two years for its completion, and the pupil teacher should be at least eighteen years of age when she enters upon the course.

6. Graduation from the training school carries with it no claim upon a position in the schools. The city has given the pupil teacher a full equivalent for the time spent in the training school by affording opportunities for study and development under competent teachers. A board of education therefore has

a right to select the best only, and to reserve the right to install in the schools teachers whose experience and success elsewhere have demonstrated their fitness. It should be an inflexible rule that not more than fifty per cent. of the new teachers required for the schools annually should be selected from the graduates of the normal training school. Such a provision will in the end prove to be the salvation of the schools.

In conclusion, permit me to attest the conviction, based upon personal experience, that the advantages of the local training school largely outweigh and outnumber its disadvantages. So long as our State Normal Schools are unable to supply the demand for efficient teachers, I believe that a city training school is a necessity. Not alone from a professional and a pedagogical standpoint, but also from an economic point of view. The local training school, properly administered, carefully guarded, and wisely directed, is a profitable investment.

THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT IN THE SCHOOL ROOM.

M. BATES STEPHENS, State Superintendent of Maryland.

Better school supervision may not be the most serious problem with which the Southern Educational Association must deal, but there is practical agreement, I think, that it is one of the important questions which must be considered from time to time to the end that more effective supervision shall be guaranteed to at least our rural schools. Many of the cities have and still are wrestling with the problem and the school authorities, in many instances, have inaugurated means of supervision which are fairly complete and quite effectual in securing better results. Our worthy president, Mr. Van Sickle, has evidently met with much success in solving this perplexing problem for the schools of Baltimore City; for with two assistants and twenty-three group principals, whose duties are almost wholly supervisory, he is enabled to know, through this net work of supervision, the conditions prevailing in any school room each day. We may regard this departure which he made in the beginning of his administration some six years ago as the most valuable of the many good reforms he has brought about for the school system of our metropolis.

Our delight at his success in this particular sphere may be tinged with selfishness since its provision has had a salutary effect on some of our county school officials. If, during these brief remarks, some references be made to the situation touching this question in Maryland they must be excused on the ground that the conditions are most familiar there and the topic is now uppermost in our educational meetings. I am persuaded we are on the eve of better things, when closer school supervision is considered, and already three counties have taken the initial step.

The County Superintendent in our State, if not three persons in one, holds a position which demands the performance of three distinct sets of duties. He is also the Secretary and Treasurer of the County School Board which Board has charge of all educational matters affecting the County, receives all school moneys and disburses every dollar spent for the schools of the County. He also has charge of the distribution of free books and performs many other duties which attach to this many-sided position which do not strictly belong to a county superintendent. He is required to visit his schools twice a year and his limited time does not permit him to remain in one school room longer than two hours perhaps—not long enough to make his visit highly valuable to the teachers or satisfactory to himself. Hence this arrangement results in two serious objections, viz.: First, his visits are not frequent enough and cannot be made more frequent under existing conditions; and second, the time allotted to each visit is too brief to accomplish fully the purposes of proper school supervision. If you will pardon one personal reference I will say that for fourteen years I was the superintendent of the schools of my native county and visited them according to the requirements of law. The conviction grew year after year that where the average teacher needed the greatest amount of assistance, viz: in the work of the primary grades, I was least qualified to give it. Is this the experience of the average superintendent? If so these visits do not accomplish for supervision all that is essential, and it is proper to supplement this part of the county superintendent's work in order to make it more effectual.

Nothing is meant to be said herewith in favor of discontinuing the official visits of the county superintendent. He must have personal knowledge of the condition of the school grounds, schoolhouse, furniture and apparatus. He must acquaint himself with the plans for heating and ventilating the school

rooms; inspect the register, observe the methods of the teacher, see that the requirements of the course of study are met, talk to the pupils, examine some classes, meet with the trustees or commissioners and explain their duties, and do many other things which are inseparably connected with such an official inspection.

These observations are not directed against the county superintendent but against the system which makes so many other demands on this important official that he is left somewhat powerless to properly observe the methods of teachers and train them into better methods. When this official takes charge of a school he prefers to conduct a recitation of one of the advanced classes because less skill is required, and for it there is not so great a need for the artistic teacher; and when he leaves the room the teacher may be as helpless as when he came because he avoided those primary subjects and their methods which really make up the larger part of the teacher's work. He may lack the time, or the inclination, or the preparation to meet that phase of the work and in very many cases there is an excuse and a good one, too, why he does not perform this part of his work more efficiently.

Our prospect in Maryland for relief in this matter of supervision may come from an unexpected source—the provision for manual training schools. The General Assembly has done much to encourage this new phase of school work as it is now possible for each county to establish one manual training center for white and one industrial school for colored children, the annual appropriations for these amounting to three thousand dollars. This sum is large enough to employ an instructor for each department, purchase the necessary material and also to pay the salary of a supervisor of primary manual training and construction work.

This supervisor visits whatever schools of the entire county, the superintendent may select. Three counties have in this way employed such supervisors, and they are proving valuable adjuncts in the matter of supervision. It may be well to say that these three persons are women, and in our judgment all such appointments should be made from that sex. Ostensibly they are chosen as inspectors of primary manual training (and they must be capable to do this part of the work well) but they are also required to be experts in primary school methods, generally speaking, because they become practically supervisors of primary instruction, with special emphasis laid on teaching

reading. I have been especially interested in the work of the one of my home county and will give a brief review of what she is doing. She has entire supervision of all construction work and primary reading. She outlines plans and sends these to all teachers who have the primary grades; she has group-centers (about six for the county) and spends her Saturdays in meeting teachers of such groups; she gives instruction in primary teaching; shows how to carry on construction work in each school and how it may be correlated with other subjects; receives reports of the progress of the work and visits the schools as often as she can giving preference of course to those teachers who experience the most difficulty in applying her methods. She makes reports weekly to the County Superintendent of her visits. In the County Institute and in the Quarterly Association meetings she gives instruction. The work of the county superintendent, supplemented in this way, secures fairly effective supervision, and strengthens that part of his work which perhaps was weakest.

In the absence of such an arrangement as has been cited, there should be employed for every county, where the county is the unit of the state system, a supervisor of primary methods with headquarters in the primary school of the county seat, which person should direct this part of the work and visit whatever schools the observations of the county superintendent may suggest. But, sad to contemplate, such adjuncts to school supervision are only in fancy save some rare cases. It is still a condition and not a theory which confronts us and we must deal with the situation as it exists. The county superintendent, as the sole factor of supervision from a professional standpoint, must go on doing this work until an enlightened public opinion shall come to his rescue by declaring that it is poor economy not to spend more money in this direction. This very situation magnifies the position and makes it absolutely important that this official shall possess extraordinary qualifications. It stamps as false the prevailing idea with many that the appointment to this position should go as a reward for some other form of activity than that in the sphere of public education. He should unquestionably have been a successful teacher, a student of pedagogies, familiar with the history and science of education and such other professional subjects as are found in an up-to-date normal school curriculum. Unless he comes from the ranks, and with this special knowledge, he will be embarrassed as the leader and adviser of his teachers whether in the county insti-

tute, the association meeting or the school room. We may all take courage from the signs of the times which point in every direction to greater precaution in the selection of this important school official. Fitness is now the passport to this place. Recently one of our county superintendents died very suddenly. The members of the appointing board asked me to join them in a conference to discuss a successor. We all thought after a serious consideration that the principal of the county high school, a young man of good scholarship, of progressive ideas and possessed of good common sense, was the logical person for the appointment. He had lived in the county but a few years and I believe his political affiliation or religious creed was not considered by a single member of the board. He stood at the head of his profession from virtue of the position he occupied and he was unanimously chosen. This is only one of many cases and merely shows the tendency everywhere to recognize the public school forces and to select proper persons for this place. The most important work of this school executive is that which is involved in his official visits to schools. It is here that he is brought into closest touch with school work, here he meets school conditions as they exist and here that he is given his best opportunity to make his impress upon the educational polity of the community. Before entering the school room he should carefully observe the school grounds and the exterior of the school buildings. No school house lot should contain less than one acre of land, and three acres would be much better for the purposes of the school. He should encourage the planting of shrubbery and of appropriate shade trees, and emphasize the need of school gardening where nature may be studied in the most effective way. There are many good reasons why the school property should be as attractive and beautiful as any other in the community. It is the home of the children for five days of the week; and the impressions they form here, from an aesthetic standpoint, will last a life time. The homes of many pupils are not such as to encourage high ideals in this regard and the school must supply this need which is a part of practical education. The school building should be attractive in appearance, located in a healthful spot and be well adapted to its intended uses. The county superintendent of course does not control these matters but there is much force in his suggestions; for after all many people are ripe for ideas which are suggestive. He must be ready to give advice regarding the building of proper schoolhouses and the best means to

beautify the school grounds. When he approaches the entrance he should rap and upon the door being opened he should greet the teacher politely and pleasantly. The few minutes he requires before entering upon the work of his visit should be given to a study of the wall decorations and pictures. He should commend all efforts to provide appropriate school room decorations and be prepared to discriminate between appropriate and inappropriate pictures. Children are susceptible to recognition and the atmosphere of the school room may be made clearer and purer by shaking hands and chatting pleasantly with the pupils before beginning an inspection of school work. It is always a courteous thing, but often attended with design, for the teacher to say, "Now Mr. A, I would like for you to take charge of the school." If Mr. A. is young and unsophisticated he may be caught in the trap—if a trap it be. It is one of the teacher's devices if she wishes to conceal most effectively her work and keep in the background her methods. The superintendent should not take charge of the school. The regular work should proceed in the hands of the teacher. How can he learn the teacher's methods unless he observes how she teaches? So if his visit is to be fruitful, if he is to find out whether her methods and plans are pedagogical, he must desist from doing that which the teacher, more especially a poor teacher, would be delighted for him to do, viz.: take charge and conduct all the lessons. Apart from any consideration of this matter the county superintendent is not always prepared to conduct the immediate lessons of that day. He has not made that recent preparation which we all know is necessary to develop a lesson properly. But before leaving the room he should do something along this line because the children expect it and the patrons might complain if he were not to do it. So to satisfy these two elements he is justified in making the departure. He may also find it well to give a lesson for the benefit and instruction of the teacher. It may be a subject in which he is strong and the teacher possibly weak. Discretion must be exercised in giving such a lesson. It should not be for mere show. It often happens that the superintendent takes twice the time which the teacher can give, tells some interesting stories and makes every step quite easy for the class. Then we hear the children when they reach their homes saying to the parents, "I wish Miss A could teach like the Superintendent." You see the effect. The superintendent, in order to make himself popular with the pupils or for other reasons has

left the teacher with less power to do her work than when he found her. This is a mistake and should be guarded against. Not less than one half day should be spent in a school room. Teachers have their strong and their weak points in teaching. We want to observe the work in all the studies or we may form a wrong estimate. It would be wholly unfair to the teacher to allow our opinion to be formed after observing, for instance, the way she teaches geography. This may be her favorite branch or it may be her Jonah.

Much emphasis should be laid on the value of school discipline or training. Much care should be exercised to learn the means employed to inculcate good habits—how pupils conduct themselves on the playground, and the quality of their conduct while in school. If they are not already a part of the school equipment, plans should be discussed for procuring a good library for the pupils, maps and charts and an organ. These belong to a complete school equipment and the superintendent will do much to provide these by impressing upon the teacher that he would like to see them or at least some of them when he calls next time. Before leaving he must give the teacher the results of his observations. He cannot do this before the school if they involve criticism. In such a case he should make a note of them in his book and hand a copy to the teacher, so that when he makes his next visit he may easily refer to his suggestions and see how nearly they have been heeded. Fault finding is to be avoided. Teachers rarely if ever need scolding. Good work should be commended in the right way, and before the school; poor work should be quietly and patiently talked over with the teacher alone—the superintendent always remembering that for the teacher he must have in stock and in abundance, unbounded sympathy.

THE INTRODUCTION OF MANUAL TRAINING IN CITY SCHOOLS.

CARLETON B. GIBSON, Superintendent City Schools, Columbus, Ga.

Nothing should be introduced into city schools or other schools which does not measure up to the standard of educational value set for those schools. The standard may have been worked out and set up prior to or during our administration. The standard may vary properly in different kinds of schools

from kindergarten to university. This test involves also a conception of education. Among the many definitions of education it may be safe to accept the statement that education is a preparation for life. Part of this preparation may be had in the university, part in the high school, part in the elementary school, part in the kindergarten, part in the nursery, part in the childhood of our grandfathers. Preparation for life may be taken to mean not simply the development of the facilities of the mind, but may have reference to one's earning power, one's ability to serve mankind and to make some contribution to the race. The development of mental strength and character building are involved in this preparation. But the education which aims simply at character building and mental strength falls short of its greatest usefulness. All educational work as it progresses should develop commensurate earning power and ability to serve mankind. The economic value of manual training cannot well be differentiated from its educational value. As a pupil progresses in his manual training course he develops larger earning power which comes with the specialized motor training. In the kindergarten and primary grades what is sometimes called the purely educational value of manual training is more obvious, or perhaps we should say the economic value of his manual training is less obvious. It has often been said that it is not the function of public schools to give the pupil a trade, but if in this industrial age giving the pupil a trade is a better manner of preparing him for life, the earning power and ability to serve mankind, then it seems to me a legitimate function of the public schools to teach something of the trades.

Local conditions must have some influence upon the schemes for education. The city in which one lives and reasonably expects to live may have a certain dominant phase of life which is not found in all other cities, and this phase of life should have its influences upon the schools. Life in Pittsburg or Lowell or Birmingham is not the same as life in Nashville or Washington, and therefore the public education of Pittsburg, Lowell or Birmingham may well be different from the public education of Nashville or Washington. In the former type of city manual training in the public schools may be broader in its scope, and more extensive, and have more attention given to it than in the latter type. It is readily admitted that because of its value in motor development, manual training may well have

a place in every city school system. I take it that it is hardly necessary to define here manual training. Many definitions of recent years have been given, varying from that of the American Manual Training Association, which makes manual training any form of constructive work that serves to develop the power of the pupil through spontaneous and intelligent self activity, to that of the Manual Training Department of the National Educational Association, which makes it the transforming of materials by working with tools in accordance with principles fundamental in the industrial arts. The first definition looks to the directed self activity of kindergarten. The latter to the specialized manual training of the high school or the academic trade school. Manual training is no new thing, no fad. I have great respect for many things that certain ultra-conservative people are ready to condemn as "fads."

The cry against fads has fallen on manual training, but like many other so-called fads, manual training, as a means of brain development and character building in the common schools, existed long before the word "fad" came into use. The early Greeks appreciated muscular work or exercise for its educative value. Plato in his "Laws" would have all the boys and girls given gymnastics for soul development. Aristotle said: "The hand is the instrument of instruments, and the mind the form of forms."

The prevailing humanism of the seventeenth century yielded to the more pedagogic Realism, one of the distinguishing features of which was *manual training as a means of education*. Comenius, in many of his writings, urged the value of instruction in the mechanic arts, but like many other great reformers in the history of education, he did nothing to put his views into operation. This was left for his disciple Franke, who established at Halle in 1865 his Orphan House and his Pedagogium. In the former were taught during the third year fifty-one boys and twenty-five girls; forty-five of the boys had instruction in the mechanic arts and seventeen of the girls had instruction in domestic science or household economy. In his Pedagogium he had turning lathes and machines for cutting glass, in the use of which appliances, among others, persons were instructed so that they might teach manual training. This was perhaps the first normal manual training school. Through the agency of these trained teachers numerous schools sprang up, in which courses in manual training were given.

Hecker, in his Realschule, founded in Berlin, 1747, used manual training, one of the features of which was silk culture. It is quite evident that much of Hecker's work in the school was for industrial education; that is, that the child might have a means of earning a living.

Basedow, in his Philanthropinum, a school established by him in connection with Prince Leopold of Dessau, taught the use of tools. Thirteen children, including the son and daughter of Basedow, were found at work by a number of teachers who visited his school in May, 1776. His ideas were had from Comenius and Rousseau. He says, in his Methodenbuch, "A boy whose acutest faculties are his senses, and who has no perception of anything abstract, must first of all be made acquainted with the world as it presents itself to the senses. Let this be shown him in nature herself, or where this is impossible, in faithful drawings and models. Thereby can he, even in play, learn how the various objects are to be named." Comenius alone, he says, "has pointed out the right road in this matter." In enumerating how the wretched exercises of the memory may be reduced, he gives as the sixth law: "The use of various tools is to be taught." Quick says of the boys of Philanthropinum in Basedow's time: "They became acquainted with both skilled and unskilled manual labor. Every boy was taught a handicraft, such as carpentering and turning, and was put to such tasks as threshing corn." Basedow's division of the child's time was as follows: Eight hours for sleep, eight hours for food and amusement, and for the rich children, six hours of book work and two of manual labor; for the poor, two hours of book work and six hours of manual labor.

Salzmann, who has been connected with Philanthropinum after Basedow's time, founded in 1784 a celebrated school at Schenfenthal, which I believe is still in existence. Here he gave considerable attention to manual training, as did many others influenced by the Philanthropinum about this time. He seems to have had a higher appreciation of manual training for educative purposes than had Basedow. His school attracted increasing numbers of pupils and drew to it the attention of the noted men of his time. Out of school hours, or the hours set apart for book study, the children were given instruction in carpentry, basket making and gardening.

Heinrich Heusinger, professor of Philosophy and Pedagogy in the University of Jena, developed considerably the idea of

manual training and made it the central point of his school system. He sought, through manual training, to utilize the child's own experiences and observations, for the sole purpose of quickening his mind.

Blasche, who was one of the teachers in Schnepfenthal in 1796, would make manual training his "very basis of intellectual culture," for which purpose he would have it "an organic component of all instruction." His aim, as he himself says, is to promote intellectual culture by means of mechanical employment.

For a time, until Froebel, Blasche, and Gutsmuths, his fellow-worker, seem to have been the last of a line of educators who believed in manual training for intellectual development or educational purposes; and they ranked it higher in importance than any of the other means. Locke, Comenius, Rousseau, Basedow, Franke, Salzmann, Heusinger and Blasche emphasized more or less the purely educational side of practical work. Locke, whose definition of education was "A just and legitimate familiarity between mind and things," said in 1693, "I cannot forbear to say that I would have him (the school boy) learn a trade, a manual trade; nay, two or three, but one more particularly. The busy inclination of children being always to be directed to something that may be useful to them, the advantages proposed from what they are set about may be considered of two kinds: First, Where the skill itself that is got by exercise is worth the having. Thus, skill, not only in languages and learned sciences, but in painting, turning, gardening, tempering, and working in iron, and all other useful arts, is worth the having. Second, Where the exercise itself, without any consideration, is necessary or useful for health."

Rousseau in his *Emile* says: "If instead of making a child stick to his books I employ him in a workshop, his hands work to the advantage of his intellect, he becomes a philosopher while he thinks he becomes an artisan."

In considering the introduction of manual training into city schools it may safely be assumed that the average superintendent realizes its educational value and is able to block out a course of work. It is then his duty to make himself familiar with the trend of development in his section, and especially in his city. If this is pre-eminently industrial and commercial and numerous avenues are open to the young people of his

section for honorable service in industrial and commercial pursuits, his course in manual training should be made accordingly. The ordinary common school branches with music and art, however well taught, will not always reach certain classes of children and educate them for life as well as certain forms of hand work indoors and out of doors. Large amounts of thought and energy and money are often spent in making the traditional public school as attractive as possible to certain large classes of children who do not appreciate the advantages of education and who will not attend the schools. Then the strong arm of the law is often used to compel those children to attend school. Many times with such groups of children a change in the form of educational work will reach them, interest them, hold them, develop them and turn them out into the world not only with a character built but with the means of earning their daily bread in some honorable pursuit. A certain quarter of the city may have a class of people entirely different from other quarters—different in temperament, different in inclination, different in opportunity, different in the demands upon them in after life. These children may well be given a different form of education from that properly employed in other sections of the city, and so it is the legitimate function of the city to establish special schools for special classes, where the conditions are such as to warrant it.

Almost the entire South seems to be developing in an industrial manner and certain sections seem to outstrip other sections. It is well, therefore, for those in charge of the great work of education in the South to recognize this in shaping their educational schemes.

Germany has her industrial supremacy today because of the smartness and persistency of Kindermann and Wagamann about the close of the eighteenth century. The little mountainous country of Switzerland is indebted to Pestalozzi, Fellenberg and Wehrli for the dexterity and productive skill of all her people.

If we in the South would do something to prepare even in the elementary schools our children for serviceable living, we must do it largely through manual training.

MANUAL ARTS IN RURAL SCHOOLS.

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This subject may be profitably discussed under three heads:

- I. The desirability of manual arts in rural schools.
- II. The phases of it most desirable.
- III. Practical methods of introduction.

I.

First, then, as to its desirability.

The multiplying manufacturing interests in the South make it not only desirable but imperative. Between 1880 and 1900 the South gained 348 per cent. in manufactures, while the rest of the country gained 242 per cent. Our commercial interests are thus becoming diversified. We are no longer strictly an agricultural people. The raw material from mine, forest and field is more and more utilized near at hand, and the export in future will become in growing percentage the finished product of workmanship rather than crude stock for mill men to develop outside our borders.

Cotton is the chief resource of the South. To illustrate and stress the relation which manual arts in common schools bear to all Southern manufacturing interests, cotton manufacture is adequate, since it is typical of all industrial activity where producer and consumer are concerned.

It is perhaps a truism to assert that "the enormous increase in the raw material is realized by the community in which it is manufactured." It is pertinent, however, to inquire how it is that this is so. If we grow the cotton and if then in turn we ourselves make it into cloth what method shall we adopt to secure to our own pockets this enormous increase in value? We may turn for information to those countries where in the past and even now these tremendous profits are made. Why is it that French cotton goods, for example, bring so much better prices in the markets of the world than American cotton goods? That they almost eliminate us from competition is evidenced by the fact that our exports for 1904 in raw cotton amounted to more than sixteen times as much in dollars as did our exports of manufactured cotton goods. It must be evident, therefore, that Europe finds a larger sale for the products of her looms than does America. Why is this?

In answer, I wish to quote Mr. Edward W. Francee, director of the Philadelphia Textile School. He says: "The foreigner has all our economic appliances and he has also the skilled craftsmen, trained in the artistic branches which we have systematically neglected. He has watched our wonderful mechanical progress and has set himself to surpass us on other and perhaps more profitable lines. After a little careful study it was apparent that quality rather than quantity was, after all, the chief factor in the problem, and to attain success in this direction it was recognized as indispensable that not only the working classes but the manufacturers as well must be educated to higher and finer standards of taste than ever before.

"Europe recognized long ago the supreme importance of educating its people in the technical details of their vocations. And this has especially been true of textiles. Many schools have been established by the different governments for the diffusion of knowledge in the relation to this important branch of manufacture, and the claim that Germany's supremacy in manufacturing is mainly due to her generous provision for systematic education of this kind, is heard on every hand, and is generally accepted as perfectly established. The lesson for American manufacturers is therefore very plain. If we expect to win our way to the highest kind of success in textile production, we must build better in the years to come than we have built in the past; we should begin by making provision for industrial art and technical instruction in connection with the grammar grades. * * * It is in matters of taste that we need training the most; it is the artistic element that constitutes the charm of textile productions and enables the good goods to hold the market. No amount of cheapening of processes can compensate for the absence of this quality. * * * The infusion of this element of beauty into our products in the future means training in art for the men who are to do the work, and it can not possibly mean anything else."

Now it is to be noted that this eminent authority emphasizes the fact that the education of skill and taste must begin in the primary school. It can not be relegated entirely to technical schools, even if we had the latter in sufficiency—which we have not. And the argument has additional weight in the fact that it appeals directly to the economic needs of school communities. Of course the public at large must be educated

to see this. But this is a part of the duty of those of us who have the business of education in our hands. Public opinion may certainly be relied on to indorse a proposition after it has been demonstrated beyond peradventure that there is money in it.

The reasons that apply to the textile industry are equally valid in connection with many other kinds of industrial development. It has been well stated that "a thousand nameless articles of luxury and convenience must still make a voyage across the Atlantic before we can use them."

Meanwhile a thousand and many thousands of the South's youth drift into menial chance positions and year by year get less out of life—because of misfits in talent and occupation.

A second reason why manual arts are desirable in rural schools is because of the foundation which they will inevitably lay for the perfection of workmanship in ordinary industrial occupations such as carpentry, plumbing, millinery, dressmaking, etc. It may be said at once that this is not the business of common schools, but rather in the province of purely technical schools. But it must be remembered that at present we have no technical schools of lower grade than the college; and the average school boy never gets in sight of such institutions. In the whole South the average citizen gets only three years of schooling in his entire life. Many get more than this, but few reach real professional training in technological schools. Furthermore, it is to be remembered that the very best thing that could be desired by technical schools is to have ordinary grammar schools lay preliminary foundations in technical skill. We *must* begin with primary schools. This fact is evidenced by the experience of every country that has tried it and profited.

Again, a matter which may be mentioned in passing: The whole tendency of modern education for the negro is toward industrial occupations. If the movement progresses as every sign indicates that it will, a generation hence will find many negroes in the South trained to perform skilfully in many industrial vocations. At the same time, unless white men provide the thing for which this paper argues, there will be many white men without skill of any kind. There can be only one result: the man best prepared to do the work will find employment while the other man will work under his supervision. This seems to be the statement of an impossible condition in the South, but reasonable facts justify no other conclusion.

A third reason why manual arts are desirable in rural schools is because of their educational value. This has long since been demonstrated experimentally in a great many of the foremost schools and urged by foremost educators in America and Europe.

In a recent utterance of President Eliott of Harvard in regard to drawing, which is one phase of the manual arts to be urged for rural schools, he says: "After reading, spelling, writing and ciphering with small numbers and in simple operations, drawing should be the most important common school subject. * * * It is monstrous that the common school should give much time to compound numbers, bank discount, and stenography and little time to drawing. It is monstrous that the school which prepares for college should give four or five hours a week for two years to Greek, and no time at all to drawing."

The argument of Dr. Eliott is here explicitly placed on an educational basis. That is to say, he stresses drawing for its cultural rather than its industrial value. For, to quote further, he continues: "All children should acquire by use of the pencil and brush power of observation and exactness in copying, and should learn, through their own work, what the elements of beauty are. All children should learn how lines straight and curved, and lights and shades, form pictures and may be made to express symmetry and beauty. The main object in every school should be * * * to show children how to live a happy and worthy life inspired by ideals which exalt and dignify both labor and leisure. To see beauty and to live it is to possess large securities for such a life."

II.

Now, as to the kind of manual arts desirable for rural schools.

This question must be answered in the light of what has just been read as to reasons for including the subject in the curriculum at all. To summarize briefly these reasons—they are: That manual arts may be so directed that their province is not alone industrial, not alone educational, but in a much broader sense inclusive of both of these functions. The question of their efficiency in this scope must depend finally upon the way they are presented in the school room.

There have been advocates of manual training—meaning construction work with the hands, using card board, wood, metal, etc.—urging the subject purely for its disciplinary mind training. Others have stressed the disciplinary and cultural

values of art education—meaning drawing, color, clay modeling, etc. But each of these classes of advocates have been careful always to eliminate any hint of an industrial character being given to any of this work. It is purely educational.

I am convinced that this is a mistake for the South.

All these processes of cultivating skill of eye and hand should be *correlated*, with the avowed intention of laying foundations for industrial schools, coincident with conferring mental culture.

Sweden was among the first countries to experiment extensively with wood and other construction work in her government schools. The Swedish sloyd—a dry system of abstract tool exercises entirely devoid of artistic treatment, has been introduced into America and other countries. Swedish sloyd doesn't pretend to accomplish anything more than mental discipline through the hand and eye. Is it surprising that the United States imported from Belgium in one year, wood manufactures one thousand times the value of the same item from Sweden and Norway. The Belgians do not forget to stress the artistic. Nor have France, and England, and Germany.

It is therefore plain that in the first place these subjects of wood work, clay modeling, drawing, color, etc., should be presented in conjunction. They should be interwoven. And the artistic phase should receive emphasis at every turn. The student thereby gains mental discipline, manual skill and esthetic culture, all of which better fits him for citizenship and industry. The intellectual side will be no whit weakened and the industrial side very much strengthened.

To build up in the South a stable ground-work for artistic constructive ability will be by far the best thing that manual arts can do for the common school curriculum.

But what is meant by correlated manual arts? Perhaps this may be illustrated by the character of the work at the Georgia State Normal School—an institution organized for the specified purpose of training teachers for the common schools. The expressed purpose of the course in manual arts is "To include in every exercise, as far as possible, essential pedagogic, constructive and artistic principles and to endeavor to meet the practical needs of school communities as far as consistent with these principles."

Now, under this regime a student undertakes a problem in wood work. He is given an option in the prosecution of any one of several projects, but each of these must illustrate at

least four correlations, viz.: Working drawing, color harmony, joint construction in wood, and original design. The projects offered have also a second purpose, viz.: That of illustrating in complete form, utility and beauty; and they must be definitely related to home environment looking to the improvement thereof esthetically. For example, an object offering in large measure these elements is a three panel screen, for use in a hall, bed room or dining room. The options in this problem are size, proportions, panel divisions, color scheme, method of decorating, material for covering, finish and cost. The requirements are that if possible it shall be constructed for use in some particular place, the environment of which in color and finish is known. Also that certain specified varieties of joints shall be used in its construction, and that the whole shall be embellished by some form of applied decoration involving an original design—as for example, a stencil on the cloth, or a space arrangement in applique. Or, it may be, a small panel of stained glass, the colors, lines, and spacing for which are studied carefully. Or, a fourth method may call for a panel of bent iron, or burnt wood, or tooled leather. Whatever method of decoration is selected by the student, the net result is the same, psychologically—namely, the constructive imagination has been given active exercise and good taste cultivated. In working out these decorative treatments, drawings from nature by the student are used as motifs, and suggestions as to arrangement and application derived from the best examples of applied design to be had, modern and historic.

It is required of every student to make working drawings for every part of the construction, including details of joints which involve three to six views of projections for each joint. Also a color scheme showing ultimate effect desired in the whole when the decoration has been applied, wood stained, and screen finished. It is required that each of these steps in the procedure shall have been completed before the wood is touched.

Then follows the actual construction with bench tools, of all the parts, and finally the scraping, putting together, and finishing with stain.

Now the following points may be noted as to this method:

1. Throughout the process receives more emphasis than the desirability of merely completing the object.
2. The problem involves practice in the use of every instrument and every process that will be met by the student when

he comes to teach—or at least instruments and processes that are typical.

3. No essential phase of manual arts work is relegated to a place by itself independent of other essential phases. All that are possible in this problem have been interrelated and worked together.

4. The subject is made to reach and influence the homes of students directly. This screen will take its place in homes over the land and stand for artistic usefulness. It will incite to further improvement in home furnishings and is in some cases the means of remodeling and simplifying entire interiors.

Now it may be urged that elaborate work such as that just described is not practicable for a small rural school. This is true, perhaps, so far as this specific problem is concerned. But problems can be selected throughout the course which will embody the processes and principles here described, and this is the thing of most importance, anyway. The thing constructed should always be of secondary consideration provided only that it serves as a means by which technical skill and good taste are secured, through the exercise of hand and eye in manipulating pencil, brush and tool.

The kind of manual arts desirable, then, is that which is educative and disciplinary, but which also cultivates technical skill and taste. The dual function is thus served of training the mind through the hand, and also laying much needed foundations for future industrial occupation.

III.

If it is granted that manual arts of the character just outlined are good things to have in the rural school curriculum, the question of next importance is how it is to be introduced.

Prejudicial public sentiment is the first obstacle. This will arise in general from the fact that education is not appreciated, and in particular this phase of it is not understood. The question of appeal immediately presents itself. How can the common school patronage, which is oftener than otherwise unintelligent as to matters of education, be made to see that manual arts are worth an expenditure of time and effort, and even money. After all, the life of manual arts must depend upon the support it receives from public sentiment. Therefore this latter must be nursed! And those of us who do believe in them, and see the far-reaching importance of them, must undertake to convince all comers.

In Hancock county, Georgia, Mr. M. L. Duggan, the County Superintendent of Education, has introduced manual arts in every county school under his charge, and the experiment has begun its third year of success. His experience shows several ways of winning the convictions and support of patrons; first, the promoter must understand and believe in what he is doing. Second, he must have the co-operation of tactful teachers who also understand and believe. Third, the products of the manual arts department must reach the homes of the children and prove at least useful, or, better still, of actual money value. If the course is conducted along the lines that have been described it is possible to find a market for products. Students in the Sophie Newcomb College at New Orleans are enabled to pay part of their tuition from the sale of the wares which they have designed in connection with their course of instruction in art industry. The small school can do the same thing on a small scale.

Using these expedients, objecting parents are led to see concrete results. And the children, if guided by a skilful teacher, are rarely other than enthusiastic. They are therefore perennial arguments in themselves.

It would not be wise, in pursuit of this policy of convincing parents, to lower the standard of work one whit. The ultimate goal of raising up a generation whose skill shall be trained and whose taste shall be cultivated should never be lost sight of. Nor would it be wise to lend much time and energy to the construction of knick-knacks—to tickle the doubtful tastes of those whose homes are even now too often cumbered with such things. Every time the standard of artistic excellence or the standard of teaching ability is lowered just for the sake of making a start or in order to save money, the whole cause is injured.

But it may be said that this is discussing mere theory without possibility of practice, for even if the school community is willing, how can the expense be met? This is the second obstacle—cost.

Quoting Mr. Duggan's experiment again: He tells me that the county of Hancock furnished a shop equipment costing from \$250 to \$300. The county seat, Sparta, paid for a special building to be used for manual arts only, at a cost of \$1,200. A special teacher who directs all manual arts work in the county is paid a salary of \$900, part of which comes from the county board of education and part from the General Education Board of New York.

Summarizing: The permanent plant cost \$1,500, and the annual running expense is \$900, exclusive of working materials, which are furnished by students. This latter ought not to cost over \$1.50 a year per student.

The special teacher devotes two hours a week to each grade of the high school, in connection with which the manual arts course is conducted. Children from the county schools who go beyond the seventh grade are expected to attend this high school. By this means, and by conducting a regular course of instruction for the county teachers, meeting at the high school shop once a month, the entire county organization is reached with competent training.

But a first investment of \$1,500 and annual running expenses of approximately a thousand dollars is possible, perhaps, only by some such scheme of centralization or consolidation. It might not be possible to raise an amount of money in every case equal to that secured in this instance. If economy is necessary at the start it must be emphasized that the reduction should be made in the cost of equipment rather than salary of the teacher. The best of equipment will avail nothing in the hands of a teacher not qualified to direct its use. Nor will it be wise to introduce manual arts, even in their simplest form, if the regular corps of teachers must be forced to teach a subject about which they are entirely uninformed. This is frequently done, and probably in every instance the cause has been injured. Results, under such a scheme, are unsatisfactory to all concerned—teacher, children and patrons. The absurdity of such a requirement on the part of school managements is so obvious that it seems strange that it should ever occur.

The remedy is in normal schools. In the last analysis the normal school stands responsible for this desirable cultivation of skill and taste among the masses of the people. For it will be possible in exceptional cases only, to secure and pay for a special teacher even in the consolidated school. The time for this may come later. At present it is desirable to have the grade teacher prepared professionally to direct the manual arts of her grade. The normal schools must be relied on to provide this professional equipment.

Under prevailing conditions of isolated rural schools, granting that the teacher is prepared, manual arts in all the phases above described are possible of introduction at a total first cost of \$200 to \$300, including a small building to accommodate twelve work benches.

The question for school boards to consider, however, is not one of small expenditures as much as it is one of large economy. Indeed, it is a matter of fundamental social and economic importance, and the responsibility for its consideration should not be delegated.

DEPARTMENT OF CHILD STUDY.

President, Lawton B. Evans.

Vice-President, Miss Clem Hampton.

Secretary, Mrs. J. H. Phillips.

Director, Prof. H. E. Bierly.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

November 24, 3 p.m.

The meeting was called to order by the Vice-President, Miss Clem Hampton, as the President of the Department, Supt. L. B. Evans, was not present. The first address was by Professor Edward Franklin Buehner. The next article was by Miss Haley of Montevallo, Ala., who had as her subject "Practical Child Study for Common Schools." The third and last article was by Mrs. J. H. Phillips of Birmingham, Ala., on "The Significance of Play." The Director of the Department, Professor H. E. Bierly, gave a short talk of the plans under consideration. The meeting was unusually well attended, as about two hundred were present.

The officers elected for the year were the following:

President, Professor Edward F. Buehner, University of Alabama.

Vice-President, Miss Clem Hampton, Secretary to State Department of Education, Florida.

Secretary, Miss E. M. Haley, Girls' Normal and Industrial College, Montevallo, Ala.

Director, Professor H. E. Bierly, Chattanooga, Tenn.

PRACTICAL CHILD STUDY IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

ELIZABETH MAUDE HALEY, Montevallo, Ala.

From the mystical, magical East, guided by a beautiful, wonderful star, the wise men traveled far and long in their reverent, loving search for the young child; and, after more than nineteen hundred years, the greatest, most vital problem of the educational world and of the thinking love of trained parenthood is the problem of the little child—what he is, what he ought to be, what he demands of us that he may realize his utmost possibility.

The spirit of child study must indeed be scientific, based upon the thoughtful, critical reading of those authorities, who, by their patient, original research, have earned the title of expert in this line of study. The average parent or teacher in the elementary school is not and can not be an expert; with her, "this exquisite lump of clay entrusted for the development of the divinity within," must be studied, primarily, for the child's own welfare; secondarily, for the guidance of the parent or teacher in adjusting herself to the requirements of the child's needs, and only incidentally in the interest of science.

To accomplish these ends, there must be a critical spirit, not toward children, but toward articles written about them, a judicial spirit which will search for opposite cases, for inconsistencies, for unsupported statements. There must be, moreover, an abundance of common sense, delicate refinement of feeling, true sympathy, and, above all, personal, loving contact with the children themselves. "Come, let us live with our children."

To repeat somewhat, practical child study in elementary schools, granting and requiring always its scientific basis, must begin and end in the concrete.

Facts concerning an individual child here now—these are the data: Other facts concerning the same child hereafter, grown wiser and better under the teacher's influence, conscious and unconscious—these are the results, a consummation devoutly to be worked for.

Neither physically nor mentally is the child "the man writ small," so, to study him aright, the teacher must know child physiology and child psychology, both normal and abnormal;

and, for the best results, she must have the co-operation of the home. It is impossible for the school to work alone and do full justice to the child. The school has long been making reports to the home: the time has now come when the school should demand reports from the home. While it is true that mother love often blinds the eyes and stops the ears to the faults of a child, it is no less true that mother love gives a quickened vision that sees embryonic and hidden virtues and possibilities. The teacher, with her thirty, forty, fifty, children, has better perspective and a wider knowledge of child nature, but the mother's is intensive study; and so each student can strengthen and supplement the other.

Real education, that which is concerned not merely with what a child knows, but which values even more what he will be and do, demands that he shall be strong-limbed, clean-souled, vigorous in intellect, "reverencing his conscience as his king," spontaneous, wholesome, fitted for life, his own best life.

Since a child's education should begin at least a hundred years before he is born, the wise teacher begins her study at the earliest possible moment. Before she enters her school-room, she finds out the ages of the majority of the children, their nationality, whether homogeneous or mixed, the industrial and social environment of the community, with its general tone of intelligence and culture. She learns something of the course of study and the methods of teaching employed in the school. She understands beforehand her own class room, with its possibilities and limitations, sanitary and artistic, as well as its material equipment.

The study of the children themselves is an integral, inseparable part of the teacher's work from the hour when they make their first appearance, until, having been trained in the way they should go, they go forth forever.

With the multifarious demands upon the teacher in our elementary schools, she needs to be alert to perceive and quick to judge. That she may preserve her judgments, an invaluable aid is found in a card catalog of the pupils. For each child there is a card on which are recorded his name, age, and leading characteristics, mental and physical, with any other personal information which the teacher may wish to preserve. The filling out of the cards is, of course, a gradual process, and, from personal experience, I know that they are subject to revision and modification more frequent and sweeping than com-

plimentary to the correctness of our early impressions. In a written exercise, in a personal interview, or on the playground, the child reveals himself as he does not in an ordinary recitation, and it is a good plan to keep these cards in a convenient place to jot down, as they are made, judgments which might otherwise be evanescent. Recording the student's improvement or retrogression in work and in conduct, the cards serve as memoranda for his special needs, and they help in that consummation toward which the schools are moving—the estimation of the pupil on the basis of his own make-up, his attainments being measured by his own previous accomplishments.

With respect to the physical life of her pupils, the teacher should have as a standard for comparison the average height and weight of typical children of their age, with mean variation in each case, and the normal yearly growth. Perhaps the best authority for these data is Dr. Boas, whose calculations are embodied in the report of the U. S. Commission of Education for 1896-97. If the teacher cannot easily think in terms of the Metric System, let her send to the Department of Commerce and Labor, Bureau of Standards, Washington, D. C., for a most helpful chart of this system and its better known equivalents, a chart which may be had for the asking.

Some one has said that "the dull boy is a detective to find out poor teachers;" the wise teacher will note his dullness and be able in many cases to trace it to some developmental effect, to low nutrition, or to defective nervous action. Often, to find the cause is to know the remedy.

According to Dr. Francis Warner, the great London physician and student of children, among the important signs of inferior bodily development which a teacher may detect are a cranium too large, too small, or ill-proportioned; a defective forehead, narrow, low, generally undersized, or bulging; a symmetry of the external ear; a too small face, ill-proportioned features, too small mouth, small or ill-shaped openings of the eyes.

According to the same authority, some of the more evident signs of defective nervous action are unevenness in general posture; fixed or vacant expression of the face; over-action or uncontrolled action of the muscles of the forehead, arm, hand, and eyes; grinning; slowness in response to simple directions; defective speech.

The teacher should be familiar with the evidences of health

in childhood, and she should remember that school environment and school sanitation are factors as vital as food and nutrition. It is better to increase the positive forces which make for health rather than to fight disease, and our school-houses should be as sanitary as our hospitals, for children are much more likely to take and spread disease than are patients and invalids.

Among the evidences of health most significant and most easily observed are these:

1. Activity, which should be reasonably controlled and directed to effective ends.
2. General appearances as to height, weight, coloring, etc.
3. The normal development of sense powers, especially vision and hearing. Sight and hearing should be tested, not to report the percentage of defect, but that each suffering eye and ear, if possible, may be remedied. A change of desk may often save a child from being misjudged and from falling into permanent habits of inattention and carelessness, while, in many cases, the teacher discovers defects so serious as to require the treatment of the skilled specialist.
4. Method of breathing. Mouth breathing is sometimes a mere habit, though it is more often caused by obstructions in the throat or nasal passages. To adenoid growths and enlarged tonsils, with consequent air starvation, are often due the two afflictions of deafness and dullness which usually disappear with the removal of the cause by a simple surgical operation.
5. Poise of body. This is an evidence of positive power. A child who cannot control his muscles will probably be lacking in will power.
6. Work done, as to amount and kind.
7. State of appetite. There should be hunger, but not craving, for simple and substantial food at proper intervals.
8. General disposition. Ill health is not the root of all badness but the child should be given the benefit of the doubt.
9. Sleep, which should be sound and dreamless, or not interrupted by dreams.
10. A feeling of being rested in the morning.
11. Absence of pain. It is not sufficient that this be merely negative, but there should be a consciousness of well-being merging into a consciousness of power.

A quick, observant, tactful teacher will have little difficulty in finding the evidences of health, but she must also watch for

signs of ill health, mental as well as physical. When there is lassitude, she should investigate the child's physical condition. Sometimes he is extremely fatigued because he has nothing to do, nothing that he thinks worth doing. As we ourselves doubtless remember from the habit of our childhood days when inhibition was affected mainly by negation, the feeling of constraint, of restraint, with its consequent worriment, induced in us real fatigue. Try the better plan of inhibition by substitution, arouse interest, give more work, and watch the results in the child who has been listless and idle. Guard against the dangers of over-stimulation, of the pseudo-strength which comes from emotional excitement, but remember that it is folly to stop either work or play because of its purely temporary effect. Fatigue and excitement are injurious only when they are excessive, when they last over night.

The effects of discipline and punishment, of praise and blame, should be carefully noted, and the intelligent teacher should forever disabuse her mind of the error, hoary with age, that all the children must be treated exactly alike. The personality, even of the little child, is sacred, and whatever the teacher does should be for the good of each pupil.

Incentives, too, must be carefully studied. Under what conditions does the child most easily acquire permanent habits of industry and persistency? Does he need stimulation, repression, or direction? Does he merely follow and imitate, or has he initiative? How can his talent for leadership be made a power for right living in work and in play among his fellows? What is the effect upon the class of a change in the program? Upon individual pupils? What are the favorite studies? Why? Shall we judge by what the pupils say, or by their spontaneous attention, or by permanent results in memory and conduct?

To me the study of pupils' mistakes has been peculiarly fruitful. Are these mistakes due to deafness or other sense defect, to inattention, to lack of mental content, to failure to see the essential point, or to my own carelessness in enunciation or lack of skill in questioning? Many concrete illustrations come crowding into consciousness: the child who called "Dr. Peterson," "Dash," and was justified by the little classmate who said, "Well, they have the same starting off"; the lad whose apperceptive basis caused him to read the curse pronounced upon the first murderer, "He shall be a cucumber upon the face of the earth"; the boy who glanced significantly

at another when he spoke of Daniel Webster as *eloquent*: asked as to the meaning of the word, he laughed and said *pretty*; further investigation disclosed the fact that he had confused the words *eloquent* and *elegant*, and I could sympathize with his attitude toward the great orator's personal pulchritude; the girl who, surprised in a test by a question as to the Triple Alliance, startled her teacher by the composite dictionary information that it was "a three-fold union in matrimony"; the note under the picture of a famous structure in Venice—the Bridge of Sighs, a natural spelling in contrast to the "prison and palace on either hand"; the innocent little girl at the head of her class of two who said when the second word in the lesson was given to her to spell, "That's not my word: it's Jim's"; the startling apparition, if the young girl really saw what she wrote about, "stretched upon his couch in slumbered ease, the face of Mr. C. was the picture of contentment".

But enough of these "mistakes in teaching".

These desultory suggestions for practical child study in elementary schools must not close without reference to the questionnaires of Dr. Hall which are indeed stimulating and suggestive both as to subject matter and method of inquiry into the content of mind.

Other helpful works that I should like to recommend to the young teacher are Kirkpatrick's "Fundamentals of Child Study", Warner's "Study of Children", Shaw's "School of Hygiene", and the papers and discussions from year to year in the Child Study Department of the National Educational Association.

PLAY AS A FACTOR IN EDUCATION.

MRS. J. H. PHILLIPS, OF BIRMINGHAM.

In approaching the subject of "Play as a Factor in Education," we are met at once by a difficulty. What is play? Have our leading educators, those who decide what is what for us, settled upon a definition of play, or have they decided in what way play is differentiated from work? One says, "Play is the work of childhood." Another, "Play is the heart of life, work is life's brain." A kindergartner says "play-work," connecting them, while still others place them as distinct opposites. I asked a rather tired looking mother of

several strong, healthy boys and girls what play was, and she replied, "Oh, its wasting time, but they've just got to do it, it seems." I asked one of her boys, and he said, "Its doing what you don't hafter." This boy's answer has suggested a definition that pleases me, and I hope it may please and satisfy you as well. It is this: "Play is the expression of the joyous spontaneity of childhood."

Real play must be spontaneous, and we quite agree with James when he places play in his list of "prominent tendencies which are instinctive in the human species." It is an instinct implanted in both man and animals and has distinct functions. In many ways it is undoubtedly nature's plan of preparation for real work in maturity. The scientists who advance this theory will have many followers among those who are fond of watching the young animals as well as children in their play, although this same observation convinces us equally that much play is simply a joyous outpouring of exuberant spirits.

Play is the child's life from babyhood to the school age. His physical development and in no small degree his mental life as well, have been forwarded by this process alone. I refer to the average child in Alabama who has had neither the experience of a kindergarten nor the training of the dancing school. It is through play that he has acquired the mastery of his body and what grace he may possess. By rolling, jumping, kicking and climbing, he has developed those muscles that he is to use now and later in efficient work.

But is it wise that too much steady work be thrust upon these muscles and brain tissue at once? Can the primary teacher afford to ignore play as still an important factor in the child's best development? The normal child comes from the home or the kindergarten as nature intended he should be, an active creature, and we strive at once to force him into a passive state. He must sit quietly for long periods with folded hands, not turning or even glancing from right to left. When he is allowed to move, it is to imitate us in the movement of hands, arms and legs. And we call this recreation! We thrust formalities too quickly upon the child, we mold him after our own patterns, when heaven knows sometimes it were well that the pattern were lost, rather than spend time and energy searching for his individuality, even in play, and giving our thought to develop that.

Physical culture or some form of gymnastics we do substitute, but one wiser than I has said, "On account of their joy-

ous, refreshing influence the place of games cannot be filled by gymnastics," while others have placed play as a department of physical education. The play impulse, I believe, should have ample opportunity to express itself in free, spontaneous exercise, and every effort should be made to secure playgrounds around every school house in the state for such play. The school rooms do not afford sufficient space.

Play is so real to the child. He becomes for the time being the horse, the bird, the frog that he imitates. May it not be possible by thus projecting himself into the life and habits of the animals, that he develops a closer sympathy than we are able to arouse by stories intended to cultivate consideration for the brute creation?

In his reproduction of trades and occupations his heart is warmed towards those who contribute so much to our comfort and convenience. Many of us have been impressed by the look of reverence cast towards the motorman, after the small boy had been playing "street car."

It was in this game that I witnessed the most intense feeling on the part of a boy five years of age. The chairs were the cars that passed through the transfer station, without moving, of course. I was to be an old lady from the country who did not know the streets very well, while Frank was to be the conductor. In a businesslike, but very kindly way, he said, "Where do you want to get off, old lady?" I replied, "At Mrs. K——'s (Mrs. K. was Frank's mother,) but I don't remember just what street she lives on. Could you tell me." I shall never forget how his sensitive little face twitchehd with suppressed emotion, as he hurriedly replied in a low tone, "Yes, but she ain't my mother, is she?" nor how relieved he looked when I replied, "Oh, no, I don't suppose she ever heard of you." To have been less imaginative than he, not to have accepted him as a real conductor, would have been to make a small boy momentarily miserable, and to have a mature woman conscious of a lack in her own nature.

Through games and plays children learn the necessity for rules regulating them, and usually render willing obedience to them. They soon learn that like the laws of the Medes and Persians there is no appeal. Many of these games could not be traced to their origin, and written rules were never heard of in connection with them, perhaps they antedate the games originated by Cain and Abel in the Garden of Eden. Tradition, however, has preserved them, and one set of children hands

them down to the next. The discipline received through play in the way of accepting law and order without murmur or complaint is very valuable. Many times teachers might secure willing obedience and unflagging interest in the school room if the lesson followed the plan of some familiar game, and through this she might lead up to a fuller appreciation of the necessity of law and order in this environment. But here we may be on dangerous ground. A protest may be uttered that I would advocate the complete substitution of play for work. Dr. Hughes, of Toronto, Canada, has evidently heard this protest, for he says, "Some teachers even yet think that the advocates of play as a valuable means of education mean that play should be substituted for work, while others fear that the child who has been trained to play will never like to work. Both classes are wrong. It was Richter who gave the following philosophical answer to such objections: "To teach by play is not to spare the child's exertion or to relieve him of it, but to awaken in him a passion which forces on him and renders easy the strongest effort." After quoting Richter, Dr. Hughes continues: "Play is the work of childhood. It is the greatest agent in co-ordinating the different energies of the brain. It develops a tendency to work and cultivate in the energetic player the physical force and the characteristic aggressive spirit that enjoys work and accomplishes mighty deeds." Did not Wellington say that Waterloo was won on the playgrounds at Eton?

The idea of play as an important factor in education, and that of the whole child, mental, moral and physical, is not modern. In Plato's "Republic" the idea of making work and study attractive is suggested as a powerful factor in securing good results. All students of the history of education know that this doctrine was a part of the plan of Montaigne and others. But it was Froebel that made the practical application of the theories in the kindergarten, and it is due to this wonderful system that the primary school is now a place of happiness and light, while once it was a treadmill—a place of dull routine, where warmth and brightness seldom penetrated.

It is understood that work is the "brain" of the school room; no sensible person would argue against that, but while we work let us borrow the happiest characteristics from play. Let us not rob one of these little ones of his birthright of a joyous, happy life in the primary school. It is, after all, only a question of serving or compelling. Shall we develop the child

along the line of his instincts, or shall we spend our energies in forcing him into lines contrary to the laws within him? Often compelling seems necessary when it is only seeming. The activity of the child needs only to be drawn away from what is merely of no profit, and led into that which is strong, true and useful. There is many a difficulty that could be safely and easily overcome if play was considered a practical aid, and the right play earnestly sought.

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL AND MANUAL ARTS.

President, J. W. Johnson, University of Mississippi.

Secretary, Prof. R. H. McNeilly, University of Mississippi.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

November 23, 3 p.m.

The meeting of this department was called to order by its president, Dr. J. W. Johnson of Mississippi, and in the absence of the secretary, Prof E. P. Ensninger of Florida, Prof. R. H. McNeilly, of Mississippi, was appointed temporary secretary.

The president's address on "The Aims and Aspirations of the Department," was the opening paper and contained at the end a declaration of principles and policy of the department. This declaration was deferred until the next meeting for discussion.

Supt. J. W. Kuykendall, Fort Smith, Ark., then read a paper on "Manual Training in High Schools." After the reading of this paper, in the discussion which followed, Supt. C. B. Gibson of Columbus, Ga., gave an interesting account of the work in this direction in the schools of Columbus.

Prof. W. R. Vickroy of St. Louis, Mo., then read a most interesting paper on "Manual Training as a College Requirement," insisting on shop work being allowed and insisted upon as a part of entrance requirements, particularly to technical schools, and thus enable the colleges to go much quicker to the

point of teaching their men design of machines and structures, and also throwing the time when a boy shall begin to do original designing to an earlier and more formative period in a boy's life. After the discussion of this paper Dr. J. W. Johnson was elected president, and Robt. H. McNeilly secretary for the next year.

November 24, 1905.

The meeting was called to order at 3 p.m.

The first paper, "Practical Methods of Physical Geography," was read by Mrs. Louise Fraley.

Prof. A. M. Herget read a paper on the "Mechanic Arts in Agricultural and Mechanical Colleges."

Prof. Daniels gave a talk on the Ether Theory.

R. H. McNeilly read a paper on "Study of Hydraulic Cement."

The resolutions of Dr. Johnson's paper of previous day were then adopted.

Meeting adjourned.

R. H. MCNEILLY, Secretary.

AIMS AND ASPIRATIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT.

JOHN W. JOHNSON, Professor of Physics, University of Mississippi.

If the question be asked, What makes one person more successful than another, the answer will often be, industry. If one community surpasses another in any competitive vocation the explanation can usually be found in superior industry. So if one nation surpasses its competitors in commerce, manufacturing, science or warfare, a careful investigation will always discover that industry and industrial arts are the fundamental causes of superior success. There is much to be praised and admired in the aesthetics of life, in music, art, rhetoric, philosophy, etc., and yet when we come to consider what really makes a people great, we must ascribe a measure of praise to their forms of industry and the output therefrom. It is impossible for any people or nation to be truly great without varied and successful industries. Is it not, then, the part of common sense to introduce industrial features into our school work and

to maintain it there, from the most elementary school to the most advanced in college or university? Wherever these features have been introduced they have proved efficient and satisfactory, if properly directed. The aims and aspirations of this department are to discuss the best methods and times, not only for introducing but for maintaining and perfecting, these industrial features of school work. We believe that the kindergarten, though sometimes abused and sometimes misunderstood, yet upon the whole has accomplished much good in training hands and feet, eyes and mouth, as well as mind and soul, for the realities of life. Learning by doing is the fundamental principle, which it seems is able to withstand the criticism of enemies and the gibes of scoffers. Froebel, though receiving scanty encouragement in Germany among his own people, yet was so confident in his theories of education that he ventured his prophecy that among the liberal and enthusiastic Americans his principles would finally lead to success. This prophecy has been many times verified by the successful efforts of such great teachers as Miss Elizabeth Peabody of Boston, Mrs. Horace Mann, Dr. Henry Barnard and Dr. W. T. Harris, whose schools in St. Louis in the seventies were thought to come more nearly up to Froebel's ideas than any other schools at the time.

Kindergarten merges naturally and imperceptibly into manual training, and develops that dexterity of muscle and brain which can so easily be developed and extended when manual training is formally entered upon. On the border line between the two, both develop a love of nature, power of observation, an inquiry into causes of phenomena, and readiness to take hold of causes and investigate them practically. President Elliott, of Harvard College, says in regard to manual training:

"I am old enough to remember when the brain was supposed to be the seat of the mind, just as the lungs were held to be the furnace that warms the body. I remember being taught that the animal heat was kept in the lungs; but we all know better now. We know that wherever an atom is consumed, in whatever part of the body, there heat is generated, and, therefore, that the animal heat pervades the whole organism. It is just so with regard to the human mind; it pervades the body. It is not in the head, but it is all over the body; and, when you train the hand, or the eye, or the ear, you train the mind. As Governor Russell said, manual training is mental training. Never admit that manual training is anything dis-

tinguished from, or in opposition to, mental training. In the skill of the artist's hand, in the methodical, accurate movement of the mechanic's arm, in the acute observation through the physician's eye or ear, there is always mind. Therefore, there is no opposition between manual training on the one hand and mental training on the other. We are simply training another kind of faculty—not memory, but discriminating observation and correct perception."

The trend of public sentiment and considerate judgment, now, is that education consists not so much in what we know, as how we apply our knowledge to action. We believe, to be sure, in liberal education and yet the principle of division of labor in educational matters, and efforts economically applied, are subjects worthy of our best thought. We have facts and conditions rather than theories to deal with. Hundreds, yea, thousands, of boys know and admit that they can attend school only two or three years after they are ten years of age. How can this short time be most advantageously and profitably utilized? I quote from Prof. S. N. Patton, of the University of Pennsylvania:

"In better economy of what we produce, we have a key to our industrial problems; and here, more than anywhere else, our practical endeavors can produce results if we work up the matter systematically. Give the laborers an education of the kind which will have a direct influence upon their consumption, and the solution of the other educational problems will be much simpler than it now is."

While we would not institute invidious comparisons, yet we believe success in manual training in the United States compares favorably with that of any other nation. The "whole boy theory," first advocated and introduced by the great pioneer of manual training, Prof. Woodward in St. Louis, in 1879, has, ever since, been steadily gaining ground. Now it scarcely needs the able defense so often given it in the past. In regard to the efficiency and superiority of our manual training schools no less an authority than our Commissioner of Labor says:

"There are several incorporated manual training schools in the United States which surpass anything of the kind to be found abroad. In these, something more is taught than the use of mere hand tools. Machine tools for wood and metal work abound, and the colossal mechanical appliances for testing the strength of materials, etc. (to be seen in the Chicago,

St. Louis, Toledo and Philadelphia schools, dwarf into insignificance the relatively meager equipments of the foreign schools of this class. In short, Europe has nothing in the nature of a manual training school equal to any of these great American institutions; nor has the Old World a single institute of technology that can bear comparison with the best of our own. In our half-developed state colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts we have the foundation for a better system of technical instruction than exists anywhere else today; and in the establishment of such noble institutions as the Drexel Institute, the Williamson Free School of Mechanical Trades, the Armour Institute, etc., one may discern the promise of future American *primaey* in the industrial arts."

Manual training seems to be accepted and approved by the thinking public everywhere, but its hindering cause is a want of qualified teachers and suitable equipments. It is no sup-plaunter or opponent of physical culture, but rather an ally and promoter of every phase of legitimate and healthful athletics. Its advocates believe that physical training is more than physical development; and, furthermore, than both physical training and physical development will follow naturally and necessarily from properly directed manual training. The manual training idea is that the mental, moral and physical nature all need coordinate development and training and that a well-trained mind and heart, depending upon an undeveloped body, is like a great Hercules rowing in an unsafe and untried boat.

A close ally, and, in fact, an integral part of manual training is laboratory work in physics. The necessity and thoroughness of this method of instruction becomes more and more pressing as engineering instruction is developed, and practically applied. Aside from its mental discipline and cultural value, in which it abounds copiously, it is fundamental in importance for all students pursuing any kind of engineering courses. Prof. Massey, of North Carolina, in discussing manual labor, compulsory and paid for, says:

"Statistics show that in colleges thoroughly equipped for their work, and in which the laboratory methods are used, and the minor manual operations merely incidental, a much larger proportion of the students enter agricultural occupations than from the best of those where compulsory and paid manual labor is the rule."

Laboratory methods and all other forms of manual training directly lead to technical training, which seems to be one of the

greatest demands in Southern education. Our general government recognized the necessity for that, throughout the whole country, when it provided for colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts. Among other things the act states:

"The leading object shall be * * * to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts in such manner as the legislatures of the states may respectively prescribe in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life."

The demand for the different professions of life seems to be fairly well met. Schools of law, theology, medicine, dentistry, etc., seem to be well patronized and are furnishing good supplies for the demand. But, in our Southern country, especially, we have great need of leaders and organizers for industrial enterprises; foremen, designers and experts, in special lines of industrial practice; also a trained army of skilled craftsmen for practical work.

As a basis for discussion I offer the following declaration of principles and policy for this department:

1. We believe as a fundamental principle, that in education, the physical, the mental and the moral nature, requires coordinate and simultaneous development.

2. That we recognize the validity of time-honored classical instruction, in all its cultural and disciplinary value, and yet we believe that along with it, industrial and manual training is a pressing need, most especially in the Southern states.

3. That in the pursuit of the industrial and manual arts in high school and college courses, cultural and disciplinary values are obtained, not inferior to those of classic and æsthetic courses.

4. That applied science, properly taught in our technical schools and wisely used in the economic development of Southern industries and improvements, will most directly and efficiently lead us to material wealth, sectional prosperity and intellectual advancement.

MANUAL TRAINING IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

J. W. KUYKENDALL, Superintendent of Schools, Fort Smith, Ark.

That the idea of giving manual training to every child is not new is evidenced by the following from Froebel's Education of Man, published in 1826:

"Every child, boy, and youth, whatever his condition and position in life, should devote daily at least one or two hours to some serious activity in the production of some definite external piece of work. Lessons through and by work, through and from life, are by far the most impressive and intelligible, and most continuously and intensely progressive, both in themselves and in their effect on the learner."

There is an almost universal recognition of the educational value of hand-work, manual training in its broadest sense. From the clay modeling and the paper folding of the kindergarten through the laboratory work of the college, manual training enters in one form or another into the work of each year of the school life. There is no better manual training than the penmanship and drawing found in all schools; the map making of our geography and history work is manual training; the object work in primary numbers, the measurements of arithmetic, and the study of geometric forms call into play faculties akin to those developed at the work bench. In these forms manual training has a fixed place in the lower grades of every school of efficiency. Beyond this more general work we find no manual training in universal use. The overcrowded condition of the elementary school program seems to be a barrier to the widespread introduction of tool work below the high school.

Beginning with the Russian Exhibit at Philadelphia in 1876, manual training in its technical sense has been steadily making its way in this country, until within the last decade manual training schools and manual training departments in high schools have become well recognized features of the school work of almost every city in the United States.

"Sacred to the memory of tools might be appropriately inscribed over the entrances to these schools for manual education; for their highest text-books are tools, and how to use them most intelligently is the test of scholarship. To realize the potency of tools it is only necessary to contrast the two states

of man—the one without tools, the other with tools. See him in the first state, naked, shivering with cold, now hiding away from the beasts in caves, and now, famished and despairing, gaunt and hollow-eyed, creeping stealthily like a panther upon his prey. Then see him in the poetic, graphic apostrophe of Carlyle. ‘Man,’ he says, ‘is a tool-using animal. He can use tools, can devise tools; with these the granite mountains melt into the light dust before him; he kneads iron as it were soft paste; seas are his smooth highway, winds and fire his un-wearying steeds. Nowhere do we find him without tools; without tools he is nothing, with tools he is all!’ ”—Charles H. Ham.

Prof. Woodward, “the father of manual training in this country,” says the term manual training “signifies the systematic study of the theory and use of common tools, the nature of common materials, elementary and typical processes of construction, and the execution and reading of drawings. * * * The systematic study of tools, processes and materials is the essential feature of manual training.” It is this study of tools and materials, as well as processes of construction, that differentiates manual training from the Swedish system of sloyd as the latter is commonly understood. However, with characteristic disregard for established customs and traditions, the American schools have adopted neither the Russian nor the Swedish system as a whole, but rather have adapted and Americanized both, using the bench and tools of the Russian and in the form of work and the completed article following many of the Swedish models. Quite a controversy seems to have grown up as to whether the pupil shall be permitted to make a complete and useful article, or be required to confine his work to a series of exercises. It is contended on the one hand that, with properly selected articles involving specific features, more interest may be aroused by permitting the child to finish some useful piece of work. On the other hand, it is claimed that, in making the completed article, accuracy is sacrificed to appearance and that work is accepted that should be rejected. But in the “American system” it would seem that the good of both ideas is coming to be utilized and their differences are being reconciled. Since the object of the instruction at the work bench is neither to teach the child to make a perfect dove-tailed joint nor to make him a skilful cabinet maker, both ideas may well be utilized. The interest may be sustained by

the making of simple things and accuracy may be secured by continued practice upon a part of the process before its incorporation into the finished article. Just as in penmanship we are not content to teach the single letters only, but combine them into words and sentences, and in arithmetic we do not stop with teaching the several processes, but aim at securing their perfect mastery in their combinations, so in manual training, while each exercise is to be taught for accuracy of workmanship, their combination into useful and interesting finished products need not be discouraged.

A Russian, in defending their system, has given a valuable epitome of its essential features. He says "Manual training must (1) be taught in a thoroughly systematic manner, (2) awaken the interest of the children for physical exercise, (3) give certain practical results, (4) develop some amount of dexterity of the hands, (5) accustom the children to order, punctuality and cleanliness, (6) correspond to the physical and intellectual powers of children, (7) develop the aesthetic feeling, (8) serve as recreation for children when they are tired by the intellectual work."

It is clear that anything that will accomplish these results is entitled to a permanent place in the curriculum of every public school that aims at general culture. Such work is an integral part of general education and is not in any sense of a specific professional character. Superintendent Foos of Reading, Pa., in the current number of the School Board Journal, well says: "'The keynote of manual training as now taught is culture—mental discipline. Its aim is not to turn out mechanics or specialists in any vocation, nor to produce a finished piece of work, but to instill mechanical principles for mental development only. Its aim is to bring out all the faculties, to encourage the creative rather than the imitative, to lead to orderly thinking and logical doing, to express thought in a concrete form, to educate the whole man.'"

It is highly important that the proper relation of the manual training work to the other courses of the high school be properly understood. If it can be placed upon the same footing as physics or chemistry, with which, because of the laboratory nature of the work, it may be said to be closely related, a strong impetus will be given to its growth. This recognition in the high school as co-ordinate with other well established subjects will do much to remove any false impressions that ex-

ist as to its nature and purposes. The first impression of the public upon the establishment of a manual training department is that it partakes of the nature of the old system of apprenticeship, and that its one object is to prepare boys for the mechanical pursuits. This is resented by those who regard all kinds of manual labor as degrading, and who look upon an education as opening the way to wealth without work. When the reaction comes from this feeling, when the manual training work itself has taught that skill of whatever kind is elevating, that "the only disgrace attaching to honest labor is the disgrace of doing it badly," there comes a swing of the pendulum to the other extreme, and the demand is made that the manual training course be enlarged to include the teaching of the trades—that it be made a veritable trade school.

In this utter lack of definiteness as to the proper scope of manual training, and in this entire misunderstanding of its aim and purpose as a part of the scheme of general education, lies the greatest menace to its continued success. Permit me to quote with emphasis from Miss Ella V. Dobbs, Supervisor of Manual Training, Helena, Mont. (National Educational Association, 1904.):

"Not only are many people not awake to the fact that manual training exists as a definite part of school work, but a vastly greater number have a very meager conception of its real meaning or value. One feature or another is emphasized in different minds, and it is variously regarded as a recreation hour, a sort of fancy work, a chance to learn something practical which may mean dollars and cents by and by; a time to make anything great or small suggested by the mama at home or the teacher at school, something to be done or left undone at the whim of the pupil or parent, or one of the many extravagant experiments in which teachers love to indulge at the expense of the taxpayer. By an ever increasing minority it is given its true place as an essential element in education. In the solution of this problem the normal school is a potent factor, and we should not consider our days of missionary work ended until every normal school shall not only require a course in manual training, but shall regard it as of the same importance as arithmetic or language. If I have described the situation correctly, and our weak points are lack of definite purpose in our methods and close correlation with other elements in education, then our great effort should be to evolve a

system which shall begin somewhere and end somewhere, and stand for something when completed; which shall have some vital connection with the rest of school work and with life outside of school."

What is the special need of the South for manual training?

With President Brown Ayres, I ask "Why is a special study made of the showing of the South as a section to be judged by itself, rather than to include its showing for whatever it is worth in that of the whole country?" And with him, "I wish to say as a Southern man that the South does not wish to have established for it a standard in any sense lower than that which obtains or is to obtain for the rest of the country." In common with the North and the West, the South needs manual training in all its high schools, or needs separate manual training high schools in its larger cities. But while she needs manual training in no greater sense than it is needed elsewhere, yet in common with all features of educational development this need is being met more slowly. The problem of adequate school revenues is our ever present, ever pressing, educational problem. We of the South feel it daily; it presses upon our every side; it makes its impress upon every school room; it represses every effort to provide better facilities for our schools; it almost suppresses our fondest hopes for the proper education of our children; but the unconquerable spirit of our Southern people cannot for long be depressed. Scarcely have we yet recovered from our condition of a generation ago sufficiently to have fully established our school systems, yet we have our beacon light in the educational field, our cities "set upon a hill." In manual training, our agricultural and mechanical colleges have led the way, and some of our cities have not been slow to follow.

In the little city to which I have just been called to take charge of the schools, much has already been done and greater things are planned. In all our grades, under the direction of the regular teachers, we have the manual training work in its broader sense, and with a capable supervisor of drawing, with models from nature and with water color work, drawing is an important element of our course. In both our white and our colored high schools the manual training departments are well developed, with specially trained teachers in charge. We have under construction a manual training building for the colored high school, and are preparing to begin the erection of a \$40,000 annex to our high school, which will have for its lead-

ing features a manual training department and a domestic science department. Already our example is being felt, both in Arkansas and in the newly developing Indian Territory schools. Our sister across the Arkansas river, Van Buren, with a population of 4,000 people, through the generosity of one of her citizens has just equipped an efficient manual training department. At frequent intervals inquiry is made of us as to what equipment is necessary to begin this line of work.

The past decade has witnessed a wonderful growth of educational interest among our people, and no man can predict the extent of the development the next few years will bring forth. With the constitutional restrictions removed our people will cheerfully bear the necessary burden of taxation to place our schools upon the highest plane of efficiency. Then will they develop in all lines and in all departments.

Our sons will build the bridges and bore the tunnels that will awaken the hum of industry upon our hillsides, and pour the teeming numbers into our valleys, while our daughters will preside at the fireside and at the festal board with the grace that has made the old South famed in song and story.

MANUAL TRAINING AS A COLLEGE REQUIREMENT.

PROF. W. R. VICKROY, Manual Training School, St. Louis, Mo.

Some twenty-five years ago the founders of manual training began to devise methods for giving instruction in the mechanic arts. Their efforts appeared revolutionary to many educators, because two new subjects, mechanical drawing and the use of tools, were added to the studies in the established high school courses, and a few culture studies, really of college rank, omitted; appeared to be radical, when the only change was a change in emphasis due to a careful co-ordinating of these new subjects with the old. Their whole strength was put upon the work of the secondary schools. However, while instruction in these new subjects did not depart very much from the methods which had received the sanction of centuries, certainly not as much as our present laboratory methods in science, it did give a decided character to the schools which introduced them.

In the ferment which has followed, the kind and the amount

of work to be done in these new subjects and its proper co-ordination with the parallel academic work has been largely decided by the local needs of each community and the special point of view of those who have had its accomplishment in charge. In consequence, there is at present some confusion as to what manual training really is. In default of some central authority to prescribe the true intent and limits of the term in regard to the secondary schools, it will be the object of this paper to canvas the situation, to attempt to formulate the essentials of these two new subjects, and to suggest, as a result of my experience, the credit they should have in the summing up of the preparatory work.

What is this so-called manual training? The term does not satisfactorily explain itself. It was used by the founders of the movement for want of a more appropriate descriptive phrase, and given a special meaning. Manual training is not manual labor, nor is it an extension of the kindergarten. It is not "busy work" to employ the idle minds and hands of those who excel their fellows in quickness of apprehension or aptness in manual execution. It is not an occupation in which time and money and energy are lavished to make a few show pieces as mementoes of a sometime skill. It is not the training of a trade school. It is not sloyd, or work where the utility of the accomplished exercise is of more importance than the making of it. It is not practice with any tool until a commercial proficiency has been attained. It is not an excuse for an application of the fine arts. It is not the irregular and optional work done in a shop attached to a high school. It is certainly not the work of a reformatory or of a school for unfortunates. Manual training is an attempt to put the whole boy to school. It gives academic instruction while it gives the elements of the mechanic arts in such a way as to leave an understanding of tools and materials rather than special skill. It seeks to develop power and insight through the comprehension of fundamental processes rather than create exquisitely finished products. The field it has to cover is so vast that it is forced to choose the fundamental and the essential rather than the useful and the beautiful, if there is a necessity for choice. It is intensive, economical of needless repetition, and ever watchful to give a maximum of insight in a minimum of time and with a minimum of effort.

Manual training is not of sporadic origin, seeking to fasten itself upon the present school system. It was called into being

by the needs of the engineering students, and has been shifted back to a pre-university or preparatory period not only to gain the much-needed time for other studies, but also to lay a more solid foundation for the mechanical conceptions of future engineers. Della-Vos in the University of St. Petersburg, Dr. Runkle in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and Professor Woodward in the School of Engineering and Architecture of Washington University, all saw clearly that while an engineer in discussion might represent the thrusts and stresses of a machine by simple straight lines, in erecting that same machine he would have to give the parts suitable mass and frame them together according to the ripe experience of generations of artisans; that an engineer must have almost an instructive faculty for mass, strength and the details of suitable form. It, therefore, seems strange to me to see so many zealous friends of manual training in the secondary schools lose sight of its origin and purpose, and seek to co-ordinate it with the kindergarten or the ordinary forms of industrial art, however meritorious they may be.

Though manual training is of inestimable value to the manufacturer and the contractor, to my mind its highest utility is in giving the school-bred engineer a mastery of materials and the simple methods of construction. And it seems to me that because so many technical schools maintain their own shops, originally of necessity, at present through force of tradition, or on account of the lack of uniformity in the training offered by the preparatory schools—the universities have not been sufficiently interested in directing the spread of this manual training movement. It is now high time for them to relieve themselves of the maintenance of shops for the teaching of the fundamentals of the crafts, and devote their financial strength and their valuable time to much-needed lines of investigation and design. And it seems to me that the best way for them to do so, or at least prepare to do so, is for them to agree upon the essentials of manual training and then demand a fair knowledge of these essentials from their candidates for admission.

In a way many of the universities even now recognize the manual training work of our secondary schools by giving full credit for that work in the engineering courses, thus giving the student that much leisure. While such a state of affairs is not satisfactory, the manual-bred boy getting no more than his classical fellow, I fear that it will continue until the instruction in drawing and shop work shall become as common, uni-

form and thorough as instruction in sub-freshman mathematics. And such universality for manual training is inevitable:

1. The community demands that such training be put upon a sub-freshman basis, because it is valuable to the business man as well as the trained engineer.

2. The universities with all the demand made upon them for instruction in so many branches of special investigation will, or should, be glad to shift the instruction of all elementary branches to the preparatory schools.

3. Skill and effective mastery are growths which can not be imposed or hastily acquired. While the university man can comprehend the elements of the mechanic's arts in a few lessons, such knowledge does not become part and parcel of him; it is something he will have to recall rather than something which is suggested by the needs of the moment. The younger man acquires the skill and the habits of thought more readily and can give himself up more fully to their mastery.

4. A mastery of the alphabet of construction is needed as a foundation for all engineering studies. It is only by actual experience with materials and processes of construction that the mind instinctively grasps the lessons of form, the relations of size and strength, and that true beauty does not consist in ornament, but in a skilful adaptation of means to ends. Design without such a sub-structure of experience with materials and processes is too often the making of pretty, petty and impossible pictures, which no intelligent workman can look at without smiling.

When the universities can come to this, they can erect upon a solid foundation of skilful handicraft a generous superstructure of free design and experimental construction.

Perhaps the best way to arrive at what is really essential is to enumerate some typical processes which might be asked for in an entrance examination. Requirements for admission to colleges and technical schools can be roughly divided into two classes—those that make for intellectual development and are complete in themselves, and those that also form the foundation for future work. If shop work and drawing were offered for admission to college, they would certainly have to be considered as humanities and the equivalents of some of the electives and should not receive too much credit. A certificate from a reputable manual training school that the candidate has completed four years of shop work might be counted one unit, and be considered the equivalent of a year's work in phys-

ies, experimental and otherwise; the ability to handle orthographic projections with ease might be rated as the equivalent of analyzing a play of Shakespeare—it certainly requires as much imagination as to unravel a plot; the skilful finding of shades and shadows, the equivalent of a close study of one of Milton's shorter poems; while a good knowledge of the elements of artistic design or decoration could be counted half a unit, and the equivalent of a half-year's work in history.

When it comes to requirement for admission to a technical school, the applicant should know the subjects which articulate with the courses offered by the university applied to. These subjects should be as carefully described in the conditions of admission as any academic requirement; should be as carefully tested, and should receive greater credit than for the college; for, allow me to repeat, a thorough knowledge of materials and modes of construction is a *sine qua non* of all good engineering. In carpentry the applicant must be able to grind and whet an edge tool properly and easily, lay off some joint from a blue print in an acceptable manner, execute with reasonable accuracy and dispatch and with the proper tools a given exercise, and design a workmanlike detail for a specified box or rack. He should receive for a passable proficiency in this a credit of one half a unit. In pattern-making test his knowledge of the use of patterns in molding, and his ability to construct a pattern which involves some simple turning and carving. This would be looked over for simplicity of method and for accuracy, and receive, if satisfactory, one half a unit. In the smithy he should weld a link of given dimensions, forge a steel tool and design and make a forged fitting for a specified purpose; the proper procedure, care and skill receiving half a unit. In the machine shop he should be able to set up work in the different machines, design a cutter for a specified purpose, and describe the steps and tools to be used for any given process; he should be tried in the use of ordinary hand tools and of all the automatic machines which require nice adjustment and great precision, for all of which he should receive half a unit.

Drawing is the special language of the artisan and the engineer. In this the candidate should show a fair proficiency, being well acquainted with the ordinary draughting devices and methods of construction, being able to read drawings readily and accurately, and showing an ability to put upon paper as dimension sketches or as more finished working drawings any

simple machine which may be assigned. He should also be able to pick out the essentials of any simple structure accurately from memory and fill in the uncharacteristic detail from theory. He should show that he can mentally reproduce the object in space, and see it distinctly. For this he should receive one unit.

I do not see how any engineering school which requires fifteen units for admission can lessen that amount with justice to its product. I would therefore favor adding at least three additional units to the requirements. In the transitional stage I would condition the candidates who could not pass muster. Then the shop and drawing could be adjusted as at present. There would be a decided change, however, for the courses in design and construction could begin earlier than they now do, with advantage to all concerned. The needs of modern engineering are crowding the courses of our technical schools to such an extent that the student body must get its mechanical skill and insight before it begins its professional studies; that is, if the instruction is to keep abreast of the times.

There is but one great difficulty in accomplishing all this, and that is the scarcity of fully trained teachers. In no subject is there a smaller supply, and in no subject is there more demanded. The manual training teacher must have the training and skill of a mechanic; a cleverness of construction just short of that of the engineer; and the tact, ability and generous enthusiasm of a teacher. The man who does only what is prescribed, and that in a perfunctory manner, who shuts up his shop and its problems at the close of the recitation, who feels above his vocation or that he is a pariah in an intellectual community, is not the man to impart life and spirit to the important matter intrusted to his keeping. Where are we to get the right kind of men? So far as I know there has been no very serious effort made to train them for this profession. Much seems to depend upon the skill in reading character of those that are called upon to fill such places. They do well, but how much is lost with every change. There is a great demand for such teachers; it is so great and the supply so small that many a community is forced to be content with the services of a half trained boy, who has had no preparation to teach, and who suddenly decides to do so when the call comes to him.

I have no fears about the virility or the vitality of manual training. Its hold upon actual life is so great that it will survive even under trifling and spiritless conditions. I have great

hopes for its future. I know of at least one institution where a serious effort is being made to gather together a group of young men who have had at least a high school training or of young mechanics whose efforts at self-improvement have given them presence and purpose and balance, to train them in the actual exercises of the shop and drawing room, to cultivate a spirit of inquiry and experiment, and to give them some instruction in the principles of pedagogy. I feel sure that the good results of the work done by such a body of men will be beyond cavil, will magnify their office and make it honorable and necessary in the eyes of all men.

In conclusion allow me to reiterate my points, and commend them to your calm consideration:

1. Manual training is chiefly concerned with a boy's mental development.
 2. Manual training proceeded from the technical school, and was shifted back to a more receptive and less occupied portion of school life.
 3. Manual training with its strong touch upon real life is needed as a preparation for colleges, and especially as a preparation for a technical school.
 4. Manual training needs a well formulated and generally accepted body of doctrine, at least in regard to the essentials and purpose.
 5. Manual training must have a body of instructors who can appreciate fully its bearing upon the making of the future man.
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MECHANIC ARTS AT THE AGRICULTURAL AND MECHANICAL COLLEGES.

PROF. A. M. HERGET, Louisiana Agricultural and Mechanical College.

For a number of years it has been my privilege to have been engaged in giving instruction in the mechanic arts at agricultural and mechanical colleges, and it is with pleasure, therefore, that I appear before you on this occasion to give a short address on this subject, which is of such great importance to all sections of this country, but especially to the South.

As you are perhaps all aware the agricultural and mechanical colleges were created by the Morrill bill, which was passed by Congress in 1862. On account of the war and the unsettled

condition of affairs in the years immediately following, it was some time before the Southern States availed themselves of the privileges of this act. In 1888 additional funds were granted to each of the agricultural and mechanical colleges by the passage of the Hatch bill. The Merrill bill specifically provides that instruction must be given in agriculture and in the mechanic arts and such other allied subjects as are necessary to their development. It was with keen foresight that the framer of this bill linked agriculture and the mechanic arts. They should go hand in hand. They are complements of each other. Agriculture provides the raw material, mechanic arts the finished product.

The construction and development of agricultural implements has been as large a factor in increasing our wealth as has resulted from the study of the best crops to be planted and the best methods of culture. Without the cotton gin the largest agricultural crop that the South produces would never have attained the importance that it occupies today; and if only one half of the cotton were converted into cloth before it left our borders instead of the \$500,000,000 which the crop brings today it would easily be double this amount. The importance of agriculture is self-evident, but it is also of great importance that the implements used in the cultivation of the crops that we grow should be made here, for if this were done we would get the profit from both the agricultural product and the manufactured article. There is no reason why we should, as we do in many instances, supply the iron and wood that are used in building machinery, and buy the finished product from another section of this country. I have often thought that it is rather a misfortune for the soil of a country to be too rich, for it was the barrenness of the soil of New England that forced her to go into manufacturing, and it is manufacturing that has given her the power that she wields today. New England raises as much on her barren soil as it is possible for her to do, and if she could raise the cotton that her factories consume she would do so, and this would be ideal from her standpoint. This is our position, and we can do both, and although it takes some time to develop the skill necessary to produce a manufactured article it has been successfully done in some sections of the South, and there is not one of our states that should not have its quota of cotton mills. What is true of the cotton industry is true also of the lumber industry. Memphis is the hardwood market of the United States, and most of

our states have an almost unlimited quantity of wood of all kinds, and instead of converting these woods into finished products, in many cases they are sold in the standing tree, are cut and shipped to other sections of our union, where they are converted into furniture of all kinds and are then sent back to us.

Now the profit on a manufactured article is always greater than the profit on the raw material, and the higher the grade of article made the greater the percentage of profit, so that it is easy to see that so long as we remain the producers of raw materials only and send them away to be converted into products ready for use, just so long will we fail to attain the position that our natural resources indicate.

The principal reason that more manufacturing is not done in the South is because we lack the technical knowledge and the skill that is necessary for success. To emphasize this statement I call your attention to a part of State Superintendent Whitfield's report to the last general assembly of Mississippi, quoted in Dr. Johnson's admirable address to the last Mississippi State Teachers' Association. Says Mr. Whitfield: "In response to an invitation of the commission who had the building of the Mississippi state house in charge a number of plans were submitted by architects of almost every section of the country, but no Mississippi architect entered the contest, and the magnificent fee, as well as the honor, went to a citizen of St. Louis. When the contract was let, there was no bidder from Mississippi, and the profit was carried to Chicago. Practically every skilled workman, those who received the largest wages, was imported. The artists who contributed so much to the building in the way of beautiful decorations were not of our people. Mississippi carried the mortar and the brick and in the main received day laborer's wages, which meant only a living to those engaged in the work. If Mississippi had been forced to construct the capitol with her own skill the beautiful building we now have would have been impossible." Instances of a similar state of affairs are familiar to every one present.

To remedy this condition we must as rapidly as possible develop our courses in the mechanic arts at our agricultural and mechanical colleges and introduce manual training in all of our public schools. The object of teaching the mechanic arts in the agricultural and mechanical colleges is to give a general training in the construction and uses of the typical tools used in manufacturing and in building operations as far as it is possible to do in a school. The student may study the mechanic

arts with the object of becoming an architect, contractor, sugar house manager, manufacturer, or with the object of becoming a professional mechanical, electrical or mining engineer, for each of these callings requires a knowledge of the mechanic arts for their successful prosecution.

The subjects usually taught in the mechanic arts courses at the agricultural and mechanical colleges are joinery, wood-turning, pattern making, foundry work, forging and machine shop work in the order given.

The course in joinery teaches the student the names and uses of the various tools used in working wood and the names and construction of the numerous joints and fastenings that are used in making finished products. The uses of these principles of joinery in pattern making, cabinet making and house building are pointed out. The wood turning course gives instruction in the operation and uses of the lathe and turning tools and the exercises given include all the principles of wood turning, namely, center turning, face plate turning and chucking. The joinery and turning are usually finished in the freshman year and for a good course ten to twelve hours a week are necessary.

After these subjects have been completed pattern making and foundry work are taken up. In making patterns for castings the student learns the application of both joinery and wood turning to one very important line of wood work. He makes patterns for both plain and cored castings, and it is well if the pattern making and foundry work are taken together, so that after a pattern has been made the student goes at once to the foundry to make the mold and casting, for only in this way can he fully understand the necessity for making the pattern so that it can be drawn from the sand in making the mold; patterns should be made sufficiently large to allow for shrinkage in cooling and provide an additional amount of metal if the casting is to be finished in the machine shop.

In the foundry the student learns how to handle the cupola, brass furnace and core oven, the mixing of metals to give required results, the proportion of coal and iron or brass, or whatever the metal may be, to give the metal the proper fluidity; he learns how to make the iron hard or soft and to handle the many tools that are used in making castings. The pattern making and foundry work are usually done in the sophomore year and should be allowed six hours a week.

Forging is the shop work of the junior year and should be given six hours a week. In the forge shop the student learns

how to manage the fire, which is one of his most difficult tasks; he learns how to use the different hand tools, the power hammer, and how to draw down, bend, form, twist, split, punch and weld iron and steel; he learns how to case-harden iron and how to temper and anneal steel. The year's work is usually completed by making a set of tools for use in the machine shop.

In the senior year the student usually spends six hours a week in the machine shop. He learns how to use the lathe, shaper, planer, drill press, milling machine, grinder, cold chisel, hammer and file, and a large variety of hand tools and instruments that are used in working the metals. He learns how to turn and finish straight and taper work, to bore straight and taper holes, to cut threads, to plane and scrape true surfaces, to drill holes accurately, to cut gear wheels and to do accurate grinding work. The student also learns the speeds at which cast iron, brass and steel can be removed with a tool so as not to draw the temper of the tool, and he learns the proper lubricants and tools to be used on the different metals.

From the brief outline that I have given of the work done in the mechanic arts at the agricultural and mechanical colleges it is readily understood that a great variety of work is done and that the student becomes familiar with the typical tools used in working wood and the various metals used in manufacturing. Moreover, he learns by actual experience, is taught to think for himself and is encouraged to do as much experimenting as his time permits.

It is with pleasure that I call your attention to the fact that daily many new manufacturing industries are coming into existence in the South, and while they may not all be projected by our own people, after a while we will own and operate them, and to this end the agricultural and mechanical colleges were created. Let each of us give as much encouragement in this direction as possible.

We are doing this in Louisiana. Under the able and efficient administration of Dr. Thos. D. Boyd, President of the Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, the development of the course in mechanic arts has been given a wonderful stimulus. Within the past four years we have erected a two-story brick building, 80 feet by 200 feet, which cost \$30,000, and we have a complete set of shops with an equipment that cost about \$12,000. During the past session ninety-four students received instruction in the shops and despite the yellow fever scare we have ninety students receiving

instruction in the shops during the present session. In view of its importance to the South let us do all we can to increase the efficiency of the instruction in the mechanic arts at our agricultural and mechanical colleges.

PRACTICAL EXERCISES IN PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

C. LOUISE FRALEY, Nashville High Schools.

Ever since the Committee of Ten, appointed by the N. E. A. placed such emphasis on field and laboratory work in Physical Geography many schools have tried to solve the very difficult problems involved in this type of school work.

Probably one of the greatest difficulties in the way of teaching this study according to modern methods, is the inherited idea that the purpose of geography is "to describe" or "to give information" concerning the earth. This is one of its functions, but by no means the greatest.

Physical Geography is just as much a science as physics or chemistry or any of the natural sciences. If the teacher of physics or chemistry were asked to teach these subjects without laboratory equipment, he would refuse to do so; he would tell you that much knowledge, broad and valuable to a certain extent, could be acquired by study of a textbook and recitations thereon, but the well disciplined mind, and scientific habits of study resulting from systematic exercises requiring first hand investigation, would not so generally result.

No well designed modern school denies to biology, physics, or chemistry, proper laboratory equipment, or favorable arrangement of program for adequate treatment, but Physical Geography still stands at the door and knocks. The indifference of school authorities in many cases, who fail to recognize the value of such work, is another drawback, for it is to them that the Physical Geography teacher must turn for the required amount of space, the necessary apparatus and a convenient arrangement of program—or should I say a *disarrangement*?

Perhaps it is because the "new geography" is still a little too new, and the number of teachers whose training has been sufficiently special and broad still too few. There has not yet been time enough for all schools to adapt themselves to changed

conditions, even though the need of laboratory work is generally recognized. We are but meeting what other sciences have experienced and overcome.

The discussion of practical exercises can be but brief within the limits of this paper. Perhaps an outline of a proper equipment for efficient work might not be out of place; then exercises that have been successfully tried, and such as are not dependent upon extensive equipment may cover the ground intended for this paper. A standard or uniform equipment of apparatus for geographical teaching has not yet been fixed upon, but as far back as 1898 Wm. Morris Davis gave what he considered a fair arrangement of a classroom and apparatus designed to accommodate about forty pupils during lectures or recitations and eighteen at tables for laboratory work. All teachers planning a room for physiography teaching will find this article exceedingly helpful; it may be found in the *Journal of School Geography*, for May, 1898, Vol. II, No. 5.

In the *Bulletin of the American Bureau of Geography* (now merged with *Journal of Geography*), Vol. I, No. 1, is also an excellent description of a good working laboratory, by Henry B. Kimmel. Indeed, so many fine suggestions are to be had from the *Journal of Geography* that it in itself is one of the most valuable aids to the teacher; its pages contain the freshest and most practical thought on this important topic. Since I cannot offer for your inspection anything approaching an adequately furnished room, I must refer to the above mentioned articles, if you desire practical assistance in this direction. The limited space afforded by our present High School building and the consequent over-crowding of classes make any improvement in this line almost impossible for the present.

Tarr's *New Physical Geography* contains excellent matter in the appendixes for exercises and apparatus that a school could follow with profit. Mr. Davis also suggests several good ideas as to arrangement of room in his *Teachers' Guide*, to accompany his elementary book.

A well lighted, good sized room is required, even though everything should be compactly arranged. Tables are better than desks, since the latter are too small for the maps, models, etc., with which the pupils will often work. These must be large enough to give each pupil sufficient elbow-room. When a class numbers over 24, the difficulties arising often check successful work. In some schools two rooms are given

up to Physical Geography, one for a lecture or recitation room where 40 may comfortably recite at a period, the other fitted as noted above.

As a stereopticon and slides now form a prominent part of the essential apparatus, the windows should be fitted with opaque shades for darkening the room when the lantern is used. A screen on a spring roller is the best for showing the pictures, as the same space can be utilized to hold wall maps at other times.

Suitable cases are needed for holding maps, slides, photographs, rock and mineral specimens, and small models. Wall maps on spring rollers are also desirable. A tightly stretched wire fastened along the wall to which maps and pictures may be hung with hooks or clothes pins, is often found convenient and cheap.

A small weather shelter (U. S. pattern) with a few meteorological instruments, such as a maximum and a minimum thermometer, wet and dry bulb thermometers, a barometer and a rain gauge, and a weather-vane on some neighboring roof, is a fairly good outfit for some interesting work in connection with study of atmosphere.

A good, large globe that shows the earth's position at different seasons is absolutely essential, and enough small ones to permit one to each two pupils. The topographical map sheets published by the United States Geological Survey are indispensable and a little pamphlet entitled "Governmental Maps for Use in Schools," (Holt, New York, 35 cents), is a good guide.

In a manual by Trafton called "Laboratory and Field Exercises in Physical Geography" (Ginn & Co.) and in another by Brigham (Appleton) are a sufficient number of exercises on topographic maps to enable a teacher to become quite an expert at handling these maps; if some such manual could be placed in the hands of our pupils much valuable time could be saved. If topographic maps are backed with cloth, they may be more easily handled and will last longer. They cost \$2.00 per hundred. A small reference library of about 50 books for intensive individual study on assigned topics is also essential.

The usual 45-minute recitation period is not long enough for proper laboratory exercises. This should be a double period and each school must work out its own program to permit this.

Both laboratory and field lessons should be so arranged as to

fit the topics under discussion in the text-book wherever it is possible.

I confess I have never solved the problem of field excursions to my satisfaction. Often I have had six classes daily, numbering 35 to 40 and more pupils each. This would require more afternoons and Saturdays than one teacher could physically endure. The field excursion will be more inviting to the high school teacher and student, when elementary field trips shall be more generally a part of the grammar school work throughout the geography course. Geography is too often neglected in the grades; in many cases the child "finishes" this difficult world study at the age of twelve, the time when he is just beginning to be able to think. While much of the old memoriter learning has been relegated to the past, scientific learning has not yet taken its place. The sad truth which lies at the root of the whole trouble is that too few normal schools have properly trained their students in the past to really *teach* geography; but progress is being made and there is ground for hope that this step-sister of the curriculum will soon come into possession of her just rights.

Geography is now being seriously treated in our greatest universities, and such men as Wm. Morris Davis, Ralph S. Tarr, and Rollin Salisbury hold chairs in this department in three of our greatest institutions. Now all this means that the present state of physical geography as a laboratory study in the high school is hesitating and uncertain. The number of exercises in physiography is very large and the time permitted by our school programs so limited that teachers must select carefully those which have greatest value and wherever it is possible minimize the merely mechanical, such as *drawing* maps, by using the excellent outline maps now published. There should be no place for mere devices that serve only to keep pupils busy.

Physical Geography is usually treated under four heads: 1. The Earth as a Globe. 2. The Lands. 3. The Atmosphere. 4. The Ocean. Some physiographers offer a fifth division in a study of Life, but it is as well never to separate this from the four main topics, but to show the influence on life activities wherever it is applicable.

Under the first topic, the position, size, shape and movements of the earth as a member of the solar system and all the consequences as seasons, day and night, facts of latitude and

longitude, are discussed. Usually this division of the study is a favorite with neither teacher nor student, and is often dismissed with the recitation of set definitions and statements. If taught by means of experiments and problems to be solved, it will not only be more edneative, but will become very delightful.

Following are some exercises in connection with this topic:

1. Constrct diagrams showing relative positions of planets and sun.
2. Diagram showing relative size of sun, earth and moon (this from given data).
3. Diagram showing position of earth at different seasons; also showing distribution of light (this from demonstration with globe).
4. Demonstration of the rotation of the earth. Suspend an iron ball by a fine wire to the ceiling where a space of about 25 feet can be obtained (in the hall, where a stairway turns, is a good place). Draw a chalk line on the floor in the plane in which the pendulum is to swing. Make a loop of string, pass it around the ball and fasten it back. Burn the string through with a match. Have the pupils watch the vibratiton of the pendulum and record all observations; this simple illustration of the Foucault pendulum is easily carried out, and a full explanation of the experiment is given in Trafton's Laboratory Exercises (Ginn & Co.).

One of the most difficult things for the young student to grasp is the inclination of the axis and the revolution of the earth around the sun and all the consequences; with skill the teacher can demonstrate these as well as the varying length of day and night in such a way that they will be truly understood; a globe showing inclination and revolution is desirable, but an ordinary one can serve with a little ingenuity on the part of the teacher. After this has been grasped by the pupil such problems as follows can be offered for solution: If the axis of the earth were inclined 10° instead of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ what would be the width of the zones? How would the length of day and night be affected? Suppose the inclination to be 35° or 45° what would be the consequences?

The determination of latitude by the altitude of the pole star is another exercise that is practical and helpful. Ask such questions as Where must you be to see the sun in the zenith on March 22? How would it appear to an observer at

the north pole on the same day? Suppose you were at Cape Nome, Alaska, on Christmas day, where would you see the sun? To an observer at the equator where is it on June 21? Etc. Where and when do tourists see the midnight sun at Scandinavia? The problems like this are almost endless and undoubtedly result in mental gain.

The most attractive laboratory work is a study of common rocks and minerals. I have never yet found a class of pupils who did not pursue this with enthusiasm. Even the dullest boy will wake up when you give him a piece of granite and a magnifying lense to search for the minerals which compose the rock. The Washington School Collections No. 2 and No. 3, put up by E. E. Howell, Washington, D. C., cost but \$4. These are good guides with which to compare your collection as it is made. A few magnifying lenses, some squares of glass, a couple of streak plates, the minerals showing scale of hardness, and a small bottle of hydrochloric acid will give a sufficient outfit for determination of the commoner rocks. It is astonishing how large a collection the pupils will soon gather; some localities abound in a great variety of rocks; in others there are but few, or even none; but in nearly every household travelers have brought home corals from Florida, crystals from Hot Springs, ores from the west, and an obliging druggist will frequently contribute his mite toward the cabinet; while a maker of monuments is found in nearly every community and will allow the children to gather marble and granite chips by the dozen. The collection should be carefully arranged, labeled and catalogued. The importance of these in the business world is easily evident, and lends a practical value to such study. In many schools the study of minerals is carried on throughout the year, a distinct period each week being set aside for the purpose.

But it is perhaps from the study of the atmosphere that I get most satisfactory results under existing conditions. Daily observations of weather conditions are made by the pupils and recorded in a note book arranged for that purpose. These consist of records of barometric pressure, of maximum and minimum thermometers, dry and wet bulb thermometers, wind direction and approximate velocity, conditions of sky, clouds, amount of precipitation, calculation of dew point and relative humidity from tables. These are carefully summarized each month. The daily weather map is studied. The daily tem-

perature curve is plotted. From a study of maps for successive days the paths of cyclonic and anti-cyclonic areas are charted. Isobaric and isothermal charts are made and finally a complete weather map is constructed from furnished data. If we had some quick, cheap way of indicating the pressures and temperatures on blank maps and giving them to pupils in that shape, it would aid greatly. As it is the mechanical dictating and entering these consume much valuable time.

In studying cyclonic disturbances, instead of *stating* the direction of winds in these eddies let the pupils discover it; place a piece of tracing paper over the area on the weather map, and copy the arrows in the region within five hundred miles of the center. Place this same piece of paper over several such "lows" and the result will be a composite diagram of winds, indicating the spiral inward movement. Do the same for the anti-cyclones. Blank weather maps are furnished by the local weather bureau, and we often get excellent matter from the main office at Washington. In connection with these exercises the pupils prepare short papers upon the United States Weather Bureau, and the practical importance of its work to every line of business. Later the students pay a visit to the local weather bureau and observe the actual process of forecasting.

The isothermal and isobaric maps in most text books showing distribution of temperatures and pressures for January and for July form the basis for a great many exercises of great value.

Diagrams showing the migrations of the thermal equator can be made by pupils; then all the results should be indicated and explained. Detailed study of annual rainfall maps develops many interesting problems; in connection with chart showing wind belt, deserts and other phenomena can be accounted for.

It is not possible in such a limited paper as this to do more than suggest material and methods of dealing with it. Examination of such charts should clearly show relationships from which pupils can formulate laws.

I get very much discouraged when I think of the large number of valuable laboratory lessons that can be had on the topics devoted to lands, and know how little time we have for the same. The only solution is either to extend the time for physical geography or to eliminate some of the topics now

usually taught. The laboratory manuals now being issued give excellent practice on the interpretation of the topographic maps which constitute a large part of the work under this division; notably, the one by Brigham (Appleton's) and the one by Trafton (Ginn).

The lantern and slides furnish invaluable aid. No school can afford to do without it. The excursions for the purpose of studying local examples of land forms, soil formation, and stream action cannot be omitted from a really valuable course; yet herein lies one of the greatest difficulties. If school programs could allow a few hours for these teachers and pupils would not mind putting in some extra time during afternoons and Saturdays in addition; but with large classes to put all excursion work in holiday hours is more than one teacher can stand very well.

Wherever it is possible to draw a crude contour map of a region studied it is well to do so. Mere *copying* of maps is of little value, but *interpretation* is exceedingly profitable. Have pupils arrange their notes of an excursion with care and question them closely as to the association of forms studied in the field with those discussed in the text. It is often profitable to send a small number of pupils to study some features alone and report to the class. This can be done many times when the teacher can not accompany them. Not only will the mental training gained by the pupils taught by such method be of higher order, but the proper appreciation of the world around them will give an added pleasure to their lives always.

The time is now too short to enter into a discussion of further outlines. While the educational world has been slow to recognize the value and practicability of laboratory work in Physical Geography, the time is now at hand, I fully believe, when it will receive the same amount of attention as the same character of lessons do now in chemistry and physics.

I can not close this paper without acknowledging my indebtedness to Davis, Cornish, Langworthy and others who for years past have contributed suggestive laboratory lessons to the Journal of Geography. They have been my guide and inspiration. These are fighting the battles for correct method in teaching and they will win. And in the near future our schools will contain all the apparatus essential, our programs will be more elastic, and good manuals in the hands of pupils not considered a fad and a wasteful extravagance.

THE STUDY OF HYDRAULIC CEMENT.

ROBERT H. MCNEILLY, Assistant Professor of Civil Engineering, University of Mississippi.

Though it took thousands of years for the world to emerge from the "stone age" and merge into the "age of bronze," so fast come the changes of today that differentiate our time from the time gone before that we can safely say: "In the last decade we were living in the "age of steel"—today we are living in the "age of concrete."

The industrial world is veritably joined together with hydraulic cement. Take it away and you tie the hands of the engineer. Take it away and his bridges would often crumble to mere heaps of sand and pebbles. Great docks and wharves would be eaten up by the sea, and whole cities would sink into reeking quagmires.

To a country deficient in the ordinary building materials, stone and good brick clay, concrete comes as a God-send, and in many parts of the West is even supplying, or, rather, supplanting, the ever-present need of wood. Many parts of the South and Southwest (particularly the Mississippi valley) are entirely without stone in quarriable formations, yet have right at hand or within easy reach gravel suitable for making concrete, with almost invariably an excellent quality of building sand; while not infrequently the necessary ingredients for making natural or Portland cement are not far distant.

Usually at least half of the cost of cement is due to transportation charges upon it, and while it is desirable to use cements of maximum strength for the more important foundations and structures, yet for many purposes an even inferior local product, if cheap, would serve amply well (as in concrete building blocks, foundations for dwellings and the like, where great strains do not come upon it.) However, without the knowledge and facilities necessary for testing the local product, one can use only a brand of cement which has in his experience or the experience of his neighbor proved satisfactory.

Recognizing, then, the importance of local cement to a country, it becomes the duty of our technical schools not only to teach their students the properties and nature of cement; the testing and interpretation of the tests of cement; but also to investigate and point out the opportunities in the territory

around them, to test the manufactured product and to encourage and aid such manufacture.

To point out, even in a general way, what these investigations and tests should consist in, will require a cursory consideration of the ingredients, manufacture and properties of hydraulic cement with its application in concrete and mortar.

If pure limestone (calcium carborate) is heated to a temperature above 800 degrees F., the carbon dioxide is driven off, leaving calcium oxide or quick-lime. This quicklime is now in the form of hard lumps, but if about one-third of its weight of water is added, these lumps will swell and crack and fall to an impalpable powder. This action of quick-lime is called slaking. It is due to a chemical change from calcium oxide to calcium hydrate, and is attended with a considerable rise of temperature and increase of volume. If an excess of water is now added to the slaked lime until it becomes a thick paste, and then exposed to the atmosphere, it slowly absorbs carbon dioxide from the air and part of it returns to its original hard form of calcium carbonate or limestone, in the course of time.

This hardening or setting quality is what is utilized in common lime mortar, but as a mortar it is subject to many grievous disadvantages. It shrinks on setting; the setting is low; it will not set under water, and "since the carbon dioxide must have access to the lime by the circulation of the air alone, the chemical change occurs mostly at the exposed surfaces and does not take effect at a distance from the surface except through the lapse of long periods of time."

For these reasons engineers have long sought a more perfect cement.

Now if the limestone, which is calcined, contains argillaceous impurities (that is to say, clay or shale), the product of the kiln gradually loses its property of slaking, but acquires the new property of hydraulicity, or setting under water. When the percentage of this impurity reaches about 20 per cent. the property of slaking has entirely disappeared and the calcined limestone presents the appearance of a partially vitrified clinker. If this clinker is now ground to an impalpable powder, this powder will "set quickly upon the addition of about one-fourth its weight of water, without any increase of volume, and forms a permanent artificial stone which continues hardening for many years. This ground product of the kiln is known as natural cement, because it is made from the natural stone without the mechanical admixture of clay.

Since pure clay is a hydrated silicate of aluminum, undoubtedly the chemical change which the argillaceous limestone undergoes when calcined at about 1,000 degrees F. is the formation of complex silicates and aluminates of calcium, but just what the chemical formulae of these salts are is unknown. However, it is known that in the calcination process when a certain high temperature is passed, other salts are formed which do not have the desired properties, and this limiting high temperature is reached before the limestone becomes vitrified. So we can see that, since the matrix never becomes liquid and mixes in the kiln, the chemical change desired will take place only when each particle of lime lies actually against a particle of clay. So that if we propose to make this mixture of limestone and clay artificially, we must first grind each very fine and thoroughly mix them before calcination. The product of this artificial mixture, when treated in the same manner as before, is called Portland cement, and is of a higher grade than natural cement.

The setting of hydraulic cement is a very different matter from that of lime paste. The initial set begins in one half to three hours, and if disturbed before hardening will lose its strength; but within seven days it has usually reached sufficient strength to bear its load. "The setting is thought to be due to the crystallizing out of the silicate and aluminates of lime, which are soluble in their anhydrous form. After dissolving in water they pass into the hydrated state in which they are insoluble and hence are precipitated in a crystalline form, with a development of heat."

To rapidly consider the chemistry of the manufacture, we may say that lime acts as a base and silica and alumina as acids. The silica, however, must not be in the form of quartz, but in the silicate form, to be able to play its part.

But the one requisite for an even possible cement is that when the manufacture is completed it shall contain no lime uncombined with silica, alumina or other compounds, because this free lime will slack while the cement is in the process of setting and destroy the set. On the other hand, if there is an excess of the other constituents than lime, they are simply inert and not detrimental; and it is for this very requirement natural cement is weaker than Portland, because as the chemical composition of natural rocks varies from point to point, natural cements have to be far on the safe side and contain a larger percent. of clay, thus increasing the inert particles in the product.

Chemical analysis of both limestone and clay suitable for cement manufacture shows the following constituents:

1. Loss on heating—(the carbonic acid and moisture).
2. Sulphuric anhydride in small quantities, manganese oxide, ferric oxide, alumina, silica and lime.

Now from the atomic weights of these constituents we know that approximately 1.1 molecules of lime will combine with 1 molecule of alumina, and 2.8 molecules with 1 of silica.

Hence, to investigate a limestone and clay for cement manufacture, we have only to take the chemical analysis of each and figure from the above proportions what proportion of clay we must add to a given limestone to combine with all the lime in it, and then we can find the resultant analysis of the mixture. And the nearer this mixture approaches the proportion of about 65 per cent. lime, 21 per cent. silica and 6 per cent. alumina (which is about the best proportion which experience indicates) the better cement will be the result.

From even this meager discussion of the manufacture of cement it will easily be seen that though the positively detrimental features be eliminated, many things may occur during the process to cause inert particles to be formed which amount to just so much sand in the mixture. The formation of these may be due to (1) Lack of uniformity in the chemical analysis of the stone. (2) Lack of uniformity in mixing. (3) Underburned particles. (4) Overburned particles. (5) Particles not ground finely enough to act in the addition of water, and the like.

Thus we may consider commercial cement as being a substance containing a certain percentage of adulterant and the problem in comparing two cements is to determine the percentage of adulterant.

Now an engineer never indulges in any scientific investigations that are not thrust upon him; but in this case he has turned in vain to the chemist and the physicist, so he has had to experiment and find out for himself. For this purpose he has developed the cement-testing laboratory, and in this laboratory he has come to the following conclusions:

The strongest and cheapest possible artificial stone he can make with the usual materials he can find in practice is concrete, a conglomerate of broken stone or gravel, sand and cement mixed in such proportions that the cement will just fill the voids or interstices in the sand and the sand and cement will just fill the voids of the stone or gravel, so that each particle of

sand, gravel or stone shall be separated from every other by a film of cement. And he finds that concrete thus made is stronger in compression than pure cement blocks.

Likewise he find that the best mortar is one in which the cement just fills the voids of the sand.

Since the inert particles act as just so much sand, he evidently can not determine the comparative percentage of inert substances in two cements by comparing the relative weights which will crush blocks of pure cement, for cement mixed with sand is often stronger in compression than pure cement. However, he has found that the cohesion of cement is greater than is adhesion to foreign particles, consequently to obtain a true index of the percentage of inert substances he makes a briquette of pure cement and determines the number of pounds it will take to pull it apart. However, this is a test which requires much care to make the conditions under which each test is made exactly the same. Many other tests must be made before he can pass on the true value of a cement. He must test the fineness to which the cement is ground, whether there is any free lime, the specific gravity, the length of time it takes to set, etc., and finally must compare the two cements upon the basis of cost before he can determine which is the most economical for use in a given piece of work.

In the engineering laboratory it further devolves upon him to determine the special properties of the various mixtures of cement and sand, and of concrete, and to obtain data concerning their strength for use in designing his structures.

Since in our technical schools are usually the only facilities for this kind of work in the South we should expect of them in addition to teaching their students how to analyze, test and understand cement, and concrete, first, to prospect the country around them for sand, gravel, limestone and clay; second, to test and analyze these; third, to actually manufacture cement on a small scale if the chemical analysis justifies, and fourth, to publish the result of these investigations and encourage the manufacture on a large scale.

In writing this I have had continually in mind a large section of country bordering on the Tombigbee river, whose limestone bluffs furnish an excellent material for cement manufacture. This limestone formation extends over a large portion of Alabama and far into Mississippi. At Macon, Miss. (about fifty miles north of Meridian), I am familiar with the formation and found it so soft as to be easily dug into with pick

and shovel, which would greatly facilitate the first grinding. An excellent clay lies between beds of this limestone, sand of an excellent quality is at hand, gravel can be gotten delivered on the cars for about 60 or 75 cents per yard. I have tested this same formation about 150 miles farther south and find it an excellent material for cement manufacture, and do not doubt the same is true of the limestone at Macon. There is a factory located now at Demopolis, Ala., on the Tombigbee.

With the growing use of hollow concrete building blocks I can safely say that a country which has this limestone and clay, with sand, gravel and abundant fuel in easy reach, has a mineral wealth surpassing that of gold mines, and with sufficient transportation facilities nothing can stop the growth of this industry.

Before leaving the subject of cement, however, I wish to point out that most of the purely scientific investigations which have lead to the development of cement and its manufacture have been carried on by engineers, and in this connection I can not refrain from quoting from Dr. Waddell:

"The aim of pure science is discovery, but the purpose of engineering is usefulness. The delvers in the mysterious laboratories, the mathematical gymnasts, the scholars poring over musty tomes of knowledge, are not understood by a work-a-day world, nor do they understand it. But between stands the engineer with keen and sympathetic appreciation of the value of the work of the one, and a ready understanding of the needs and requirements of the other; and by his power of adaptability he grasps the problems presented, takes from the investigators their abstract results and transforms them into practical usefulness for the world."

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL INSTRUCTION.

President, Prof. T. J. Woofter, Atehns, Ga.

Vice-President, Miss Agnes Morris, Natchitoches, La.

Secretary, Prof. Chas. E. Little, Nashville, Tenn.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

November 23, 3 p.m.

This department met in the Fogg High School on Thursday, November 23, at 3 p.m., with a full attendance. In the absence of Professor Woofter, Professor Little presided.

Professor Edward F. Buchner, University of Alabama, read a paper on "A Qualified Teaching Force," which was discussed and supplemented by Professor Wickliffe Rose, Peabody College for Teachers." The paper and discussion are given below.

Officers for the ensuing year were elected as follows:

President, Prof. E. C. Branson, Athens, Ga.

Vice-President, Miss Elizabeth M. Haley, Monttvallo, Ala.

Secretary—Prof. Chas. E. Little, Nashville, Tenn.

A QUALIFIED TEACHING FORCE.

PROF. EDWARD FRANKLIN BUCHNER, University of Alabama.

It is among the traditions of this department, I believe, that the discussions shall originate from, if not be led by, active representatives of "normal" instruction. Those who standardize teaching have been called upon to set the bounds to your discussions and to introduce the main facts for your considerations. Why you have allowed your excellent tradition to lapse is a query we need not pause to answer. It is with frankness that I make the confession of having, at no time, labored in the vineyard known as "normal." It is my misfortune—or fortune—to belong to the group frequently known by others as "theorists." Yet, throughout an academic activity extending over a period of thirteen years, it has been my privilege to labor

at the problems of education and to aid, where possible, teachers, both those who have had riper years and forms of experience than myself, and those who were simply looking forward to the more or less temporary career of teaching. This is my only apology for letting your tradition go by the boards and accepting the generous invitation of your officers to present something on this occasion.

Another confession is needed to put us at our ease, and to relieve you from the delusion of a mere luncheon when expecting a full dinner. When consenting to accept the final discretion of your worthy secretary, my utmost surmise did not pass beyond the possibility of presenting a tail-end paper on the program of this particular department. My conscience could really be clear at this time only after a year's nipping and filing at the theme which is to be the sole topic of an annual discussion. It would have been a great relief could it have been possible for me to free at the beginning this occasion from that too common trait of teachers to display ideas without being in a sufficient state of preparedness. Cock-sure-ness is one of the banes of the profession. The tons of current printed educational discussions testify to the prevalence of the readiness of the teacher to write and speak—and then think, after the proceedings come from the press. Such, certainly, is not the best qualification for those who teach.

We American teachers should recognize the fact that, in spite of the absence of federal educational laws, it is now our boast to possess an official literature upon the subject of the qualification of teachers. It is in no wise my purpose to encroach upon, or to attempt to interpret the mature conclusions and the specific recommendations of the memorable reports of the Committee of Fifteen, presented 1895, and of the Committee of Twelve, presented 1897, respectively, to the National Educational Association. Why the rural schools should thus have received an apostolic benediction is not easy to understand; but that they needed it, we would all readily agree. Each of these reports takes up specifically the preparation of teachers for their tasks as school keepers and as molders of the next generation. In each report we have the concreted wisdom of a special sub-committee. The training of elementary and secondary school teachers is one of the three topics considered by the fifteen committeemen, while the supply of teachers for the rural schools is one of the main topics of the Committee of Twelve.

Every supervising officer in our school systems and every student of recent educational history are thoroughly familiar with the ideals of these expert leaders of our schools. These official voices no less speak from the actual workings of our school systems, and should therefore be heard without interruption. Giving these reports their proper places, we may turn aside to follow the trend of interests as they may appeal to us assembled here today.

Ever since the days of Francke, Gesner, Hecker and Wolf in the several forms of German educational institutions in the eighteenth century, the school world is saying less and less frequently, "the teacher is born," and more and more frequently, "the teacher is made." At the present time, the making of the teacher is an unending problem; for, no sooner is one made, than our school systems need a dozen, so rapid are the changes in the professional personnel, the growth of our population, and the modifications of our schools.

From a logical point of view, also, the teacher and his training are probably the most important questions in every form of education. As the teacher, so the school. As the teacher, so the pupil. While the school necessarily and fundamentally exists for the sake of the child, and should be pedo-centric, the school cannot be kept in its orbit as revolving about the child without the guiding hand and thought of the teacher.

The sheet anchor for every constructive discussion of this subject is not far to find. In spite of all the variations and changes in educational creeds and practices, one thought remains unchanged. That thought is this: he who teaches must possess at least certain qualifications in order to discharge the duties of that office. Successful teaching is simply a result of fitness. A thought, which is so ancient, must therefore at once rob us of all anticipation of something new or novel. So standard is this idea, that any current opportunity to consider it only presents an occasion for another person to express himself and thus "go on record."

Quintilian insisted that the teacher's "first care should be to ascertain with all possible thoroughness the mind and the character of the child." Rousseau makes internals central. Says he: "The first qualification I should require in him (the tutor), and this one presupposes many others, is, that he shall not be capable of selling himself. There are employments so noble that we cannot fulfil them for money without showing

ourselves unworthy to fulfil them. Such an employment is that of a soldier; such a one is that of a teacher. * * * A teacher! what a great soul he ought to be! Truly, to form a man, one must be either himself a father, or else something more than human. And this is the office you calmly entrust to hirelings!"

The fitness of the teacher is a vital problem in every stage of educational development. It is, likewise and accordingly, a necessary problem today. We would miss the teaching of educational history if we do not see the point that throughout past times the qualifications vary either according to the type of the thinker, or to the type of the times in which the thinker thinks, or both. In our day, the central question is, what are the demands made upon the teacher's qualifications by the times? And by "times" we must interpret not only the status of the social whole, but specifically inquire into the exigencies of the school, the demands of children as progressively known, the demands of the subjects of study, and, not least, the demands of the patrons and the general public which resort to the output of the schools for the constructive factors in doing the work of the world.

As construers of educational necessities, it is essential that we get a vital grasp upon the historic fact that there is a marked concensus of opinion and legal enactment upon the one point namely, that the true teacher can be described in terms pretty much the same the world round. If the teacher were not a positive dynamic social factor, I presume this unanimity of thought and description would be absolutely impossible. For one more illustrative instance, I turn to a legal document issued in Prussia in 1819, where we may read:

"In order that a master may be enabled to fulfil the duties of his station, he ought to be religious, wise, and alive to the high importance of his profession. He ought thoroughly to understand the duties of his station, to have acquired the art of teaching and managing youth, to be firm in his fidelity to the state, conscientious in the discharge of his duties, friendly and prudent in his relations with the parents of his children, and with his fellow-citizens in general; finally, he ought to inspire all around him with a lively interest in the progress of the school, and to render them favorably inclined to second his own wishes and endeavors."

Can more fitting language be found or manufactured in

which to describe the characteristics of that particular teacher whom parents and citizens desire to preside over their schools and the destinies of their children? How can we secure the education of such school masters? That is the recurrent problem of the qualified teaching force.

QUALIFICATIONS—WHY REQUIRED.

The only single answer to be given to the inquiries concerning the teacher's fitness, is: the "perfect" man, and the "perfect" woman. The golden age of all civilized races, however, continually abides in the future. It thus becomes needful that specifications be made of the general and the technical qualifications required of the teacher. By qualification must be understood that which makes the teacher to be such. It makes him a "good" teacher from the professional point of view. It means schoolroom ability, and finally becomes school-making.

We must distinguish at the outstart between the qualifications as they exist or are recognized by statute requirement, and the qualifications which educational reflection conceives as properly belonging to the teacher as such. In school systems, the former is a matter of *quid facti*; the latter, of *quid juris*. Between these two extremes of that which exists and that which should be, there is always and necessarily a conflict. This struggle is wholesome. For, out of it, comes that progress for which we are always looking.

But, why should qualifications be required of teachers at all? Do the concurrent opinions of different peoples have any sensible or rational basis? or, is qualification merely a local hobby, which can find no justification either in the nature of human society or in the nature of human skill and dexterity? Three reasons appeal to me as fully justifying the almost universal demand of unprejudiced thought and formal authority for the training of teachers for their work.

First, education is a progressive science. It is not given in its completeness at any one time or at any one place. No individual can encompass it. It is not something that can be learned in a single lesson, nor that to which adequate adaptation can be made with the acquisition of a definite number of stipulated reactions. It stands, on the contrary, in universal relations with the history and the present potency of human society. It follows the lead of enquiring thought, which attempts to explain human variation and human progress. In its own

field education is progressive. The teacher is one who must "keep up;" and this demand cannot be satisfactorily met without that preliminary preparation which enables the struggler to short-cut his way through the mazes of new advances in interpretation of principles and the application of new devices for the realization of definite school ends.

Again, the teacher needs training, because he has not the opportunity of working independently. Were all pupils Robinson Crusoes, and every teacher merely a tutor, we might then conceive of the possibility of such teachers as not requiring any particular qualification. The teacher in a school, the teacher of a child destined to live in an organized human society (however simple or complex its organization), is permanently confronted with justifiable limitations which are the essentials of all organization. The limitations of the teacher increase the requirement of qualification. The teacher's curriculum is practically made for him. It is handed down largely by tradition. It is also determined for him to some extent by the enactments of the law or of the authoritative superintendent. If not by these, then it is determined by his very imitative processes which are set agoing by the critics of his school and his methods, who constantly and freely compare his school with the schools found in other neighborhoods. "Something better than our school" is a test which no real teacher, or community even, can stand for a long time without yielding. The teacher is also limited through his very apparatus. His text-books are not of his own manufacture. Yet he must learn to use them. Particularly is this true in the wave of uniformity which is making us all wet alike.

The natures of his pupils are not of his own making, but are independent of him. Herein we find one of the most persistent and varied limitations under which the teacher must do his work. The school plan is for the most part fixed by the superintendent or the principal, even in cases where statute law does not extend this far in school matters. The social life of the school is not less foreign to the teacher, setting a limitation of which he must be fully conscious if he is to succeed in his undertaking. The great course of human civilization is an over-towering educational agency, over which the teacher cannot climb, but to which he must bend in every movement he makes, whether in language, history, science or art.

In spite of all these limitations, the teacher *must learn to use*

all of these in an harmonious manner, and to bring their fruition to a common end. The true wonder of it is that many teachers sometimes succeed in spite of the vast heterogeneity which surrounds them. And, do we ourselves fully appreciate the limitations under which teachers are compelled to do their varied work? These very limitations make expertness necessary on their part. Here is a fundamental requirement for teacher training. The school historically has wrought order and symmetry out of all these limitations, and the teacher must be so intelligent of the results of this historical progress as to step into the school and continue its realization of a net result in human training.

The third reason which demands teacher qualification is more than a corollary of the foregoing. It is the fact of specialization of function which makes the training of teachers a necessity, both for society and for the school. This specialization is two-fold: (a) teaching itself is a specialty different from the other vocations which social progress has thus far differentiated; (b) within the field of teaching there are minuter specialties, such as those fixed by the type of school, by grades within a single school, and by the different subjects which are taught and practised in the school. There are also the demands based upon the peculiarities of child growth and behavior. And also those which are made by the logical and the genetic development of the subjects of study.

There may be other grounds for the demand of qualification upon the part of the teacher, which appeal more strongly to others. But these three seem to me to be adequate to meet the needs, not only of delinquent teachers who need to be urged to put forth greater efforts in their own professional behalf, but also strong enough to induce the minds of the lay public to see the need of demanding proper qualifications on the part of teachers in order to raise the standards of their local schools. One of the peculiar handicaps of educational progress is the fact that this is a field in which the average person is rather disposed to think and to act, when official opportunity offers, as though he knew all about it. Quite the reverse is true when it comes to most of the other arts and professions. Perhaps, after all, this is not an unmitigated evil in educational growth, for teaching probably lies closer to the social consciousness of the race than any other organic interest. And, by exercising its functions properly, the school comes eventually to destroy the

very condition upon which it originally feeds. This is accomplished by educating the public to see that teaching is not a mere matter of opinion, but of assured knowledge, and also because mistakes in this line of social dynamics tend, on the whole, to hide themselves more readily and more easily than the fundamental mistakes in the other professions and practical arts. In this respect, education is exceptional.

QUALIFICATIONS—WHAT OUGHT THEY BE?

There can be only two views held upon the point as to whether any qualifications are needed to make the teacher: either they are, or they are not needed. Difficulties begin to arise when those who answer the preceding question in the affirmative endeavor to state just what are the qualifications demanded. It is impossible to speak in a general way that would be acceptable to all educational workers. This is not discouraging, for herein we come upon the ideality that inheres in the work of school building. Any age and any individual stamp the impress of their ideals unmistakably upon their conceptions of what is required to make the teacher a teacher and something different from everybody else.

It is probable that there has always been a tendency among men, where schools have flourished at all, to hold that only one requirement exists. This is the idea that a liberal education is *at the same time* a training for teaching. This continues to be current in popular educational thought. Let us frankly admit that this idea is not merely a result of prejudice, but an idea that has some merits upon which it can stand. The most plausible is, probably, that, since a youth has been educated, he therefore knows all about education, and can forthwith make an adequate teacher. It is hard to get our colleges and our universities at large weaned away from this primitive notion. It is also no easy task to lead school officials to see that anything more might be needed as a requisite for success in teaching. This will account for most of the multitude of college graduates turning to the schools as "hirelings" for a season, to satisfy a meagre purse, or to shorten the time until the other desired profession opens its doors.

As a possible help to our discussions I suggest the following classification of the qualifications which a teacher ought to possess. Any essential trait falls into one or more of these groups:

- (a) Natural qualifications;
- (b) academic qualifications;

(c) professional qualifications; (d) experiential qualifications.

Natural qualifications are such as originate in the native abilities of the individual, in his heredity, in that make-up which he possesses for which he needs to thank "his stars" only. Teaching has thus long been classed as one of the "gifts," the lack of which can not be replaced by post-natal efforts, no matter how serious and persistent. These are the endowments of one's personality, about whose true origin we are so much in the dark today. It is the recognition of these to the exclusion of all other qualifications that has led the historic mind to conceive of the teacher as being "born" and as not made.

Academic qualifications are such as can, with a fair degree of intelligence and opportunity, be acquired by attendance upon schools. They sometimes are made identical with "general culture." They vary more according to the schools attended than according to the native abilities of the individual. Educational institutions can become very self-conscious in attempting to discriminate between the relative values of other institutions, particularly in the ranks of secondary and higher education.

Professional qualifications are those which are acquired by the special study of education and the practice of its principles. It means the definite training to think and to act along educational lines as determined by the most scientific treatment of the problems of the school and the child of which such material is capable. It is the knowledge and the training which, once fully possessed, make the teacher an expert in his vocation.

Experiential qualifications are such as arise from actual experience in the school room, and are to be acquired by each individual for himself. They are usually regarded as cumulative. School officials are quite right in inquiring into the "experience" a given candidate may have had prior to his application. This group of traits cannot be pushed too far, since the teacher, either in training or otherwise, must begin his activity before the qualities thus to be acquired are in his possession. This fourth group thus makes up the confessedly pragmatic test, which determines the fitness of the teacher.

It is not a safe thing to stop and point out which of these is the most important. We happen to be living in an age when the professional qualifications are accentuated into greater im-

portance than almost all the others combined. This is happily a culmination of the development in normalization of the past century. Previous epochs have selected some one of the others as the most important. We, however, should be fair to ourselves and to the truth in the matter, and say that each group of qualifications has its relative importance, inasmuch as they are all essential in the making of the teacher and in aiding the teacher to make the school. And, after all, school making is the important thing in this modern day of education. Our divorce of the teacher as a personality and as an individuality from the school as the underlying, permanent thing has been responsible for that lack of zeal which has depleted our teaching ranks and kept our school in such an annual state of turmoil. May we not hope for the day when the teacher will be permitted to allow his identity to be swallowed up in the life of the school? We never think of Arnold alone; but it is always Arnold "of Rugby." We never think of Thring alone; but it is always Thring "of Uppingham."

These four types are frequently confused; and often are not separated at all in judging of the worth of a teacher. No less frequently one type of qualities is accepted as answering the place of all the others. Among trained school men, however, they are all recognized, and inquired into; but probably not with the distinctness with which they appear in a short table of enumeration. It is not my purpose to adhere to these groups in the treatment which may follow. I wish to feel freer than such a scheme would permit at the present moment. Lose sight of them and their significance, we shall not do in the listing of the essential qualities to which we now turn.

High *moral character* is absolutely and fundamentally essential in the make-up of a teacher. The recognition of duty and the practice of its law should be well developed in him who is to teach. The ethical end of education, and the moral values of human life make this demand very emphatic. Self-control is also the basal principle in school management. The sombre teacher is not necessarily the most moral nor the most volitional. Cheerfulness must be added in the work of the school room. This character also involves sympathy for the child in his repeated efforts at the problems of school life. Indeed, the true teacher knows more of altruism, when rightly understood, than the practitioner of almost any other profession. This is what we popularly call "the missionary spirit."

There must also be a fundamental *devotion to the calling*. As some one has said, there must be a decided "lack of dislike of teaching." This virtue must become positive, and appear as real enthusiasm for the work. Enthusiasm is frequently a possession which gives the teacher a momentum of great carrying power when knotty situations arise in the art of school-making. We should not confuse this devotion with the motive for teaching. The current widespread agitation of the salary question must not be interpreted as reflecting upon the genuineness of interest which teachers have in their work. The reasons why one teaches may be as diverse as the necessities of material and spiritual living. On the other hand, one may teach for the salary, without necessarily allowing that reason to lessen the interest in the work itself.

The teacher must also present the major portion of that platform upon which he and his pupil must cooperate in their mutual work. This platform is *sympathy*. Pestalozzi was right; teaching is reaching child life through love. Without this there may be mechanical and perfunctory instruction for the moment only, but nothing more.

Vigorous *health* and other *personal traits* rightly belong to the teacher we are describing. The actual work of school keeping is in itself severe. It makes a heavy draft upon the vitality of the teacher, particularly in the case of woman. At least so much good health must be in constant possession as to enable the teacher to be cheerful in doing the daily work of the school. Teaching is not an "easy job," as many a young and unhealthy tyro soon discovers. To this good health should be added the care of the body, both for the sake of that health and for the sake of personal appearance. The teacher must feel well and look well, even *beautiful*, when possible. The teacher is the source of the chief and most lasting impressions in the school which play upon the child. He offers a persistent and living example of those qualities which slowly grow in childhood. And he should not be a representative of that perverse power of unhealthy conditions over mental qualities. What we have come to recognize through the teachings of physiological psychology and physiological pedagogies as to the value of the physical substrate in the school life of the child, we must fully admit in the case of the teacher. The dyspeptic and the infected must be ruled from the control of our school rooms. No less should the slovenly and unkempt teacher be admitted

to the exalted position of controlling the tastes of our children.

Excellent *native ability* should mark the teacher. He dare not be intellectually lazy. He should be alive to all possibilities of enlarging his acquaintance with the nature of his pupils and the conditions of school activity. One of the peculiar traits and merits of a trained teacher is that *he knows how to seek opportunity* in his class and other school work *to get experience for himself*. This vital supplement to his normal training is the constant condition of keeping abreast the growing needs of his pupils. These original observations are of immense importance to him in the construction of the rational groundwork of his procedure. The modification of his successive adaptations are also largely based upon the vigor and intelligence of these experiences. This native ability enables him to present that *spontaneity* which is so characteristic of the teacher whom we generally speak of as "alive and awake."

The *general scholarship* of the teacher should be sound and wide. More teachers are discredited both in the school and in public opinion by reason of imperfect or pedantic scholarship than for almost all other reasons combined. Here we meet with standards of valuation which are applied to teachers by those who are outside the ranks of the official critics of the teacher. The teacher needs not only the scholarship of the text-book and of the reference book, but he must have that degree of learning, which is not small by any means, that will enable him not only to appreciate, but also to construct, educational values of subjects and training. It takes wide knowledge and repeated thinking to bring out the relational values of what the school compels the child to acquire. Why the school is entitled to make these requirements of the pupil must be answered by the teacher in a progressive manner. Every superintendent knows the inestimable worth of those teachers whose knowledge enables them to measure up evenly with the modern club matrons in the community. Such teachers help to mold public opinion in favor of the school in a definite way.

We must not forget to recognize the fact that scholarship, as ordinarily understood and measured by examinations and certificates, is only quantitative. Officials become interested chiefly in *how much* the given teacher knows and remembers. We overlook the fact that scholarship has also its qualitative aspect. This is of greater value still. The teacher who possesses a qualitative scholarship is one of scholarly tastes.

He appreciates the fact that the field of knowledge before the child is not bounded by the apparatus in the school nor by the books that might perchance fall into the pupil's hand. The qualitative inspiration must be given to our children. They must learn that the completion of a given text-book is not the completion of the subject studied. And what teacher is there in the higher grades of instruction that does not have to fight year in and year out against that limitation under which the more elementary instruction leaves pupils, namely, of having studied this or that, and therefore as knowing it all.

Professional scholarship and training is the last qualification to be named in this list. Last because it is the last to be acquired and that which really presupposes all the others. In the history of school keeping we have at last, though slowly, brought ourselves to see that the teacher is not only one who knows a subject of study in a general cultural way, but he also knows that subject in terms of ability to teach it. "The proper study of the teacher is the pupil." In making the child the center of the whole plan of education, we are demanding that the teacher shall not merely teach reading, geography, or history, but the child as a reader, as a geographer, as a historian. There is a danger of overdoing this matter where pedagogical methodism reigns supreme, and letting the child disappear between the subject-matter and the method. But on the whole, we have here a touchstone which can always bring us back to the fundamental conditions under which teaching is to be carried on.

The distinction between general and professional scholarship has probably been more clearly expressed by Lakanal a century ago than by any other contributor to our stock of educational ideas. The true teacher is the person *who, while teaching you to know one thing, teaches you to reason upon all things*. The secret of this double accomplishment is method, understood in its widest possible sense. This is what makes the teacher's knowledge of a subject so different, in the beginning of instruction, at least, so radically different from the pupil's knowledge of the same. This means that there must be a reconstruction of knowledge for the sake of teaching, based upon the psychology of the mental processes involved in acquiring that knowledge and upon the pedagogical principles by following which the teacher is enabled to bring the pupil to a proper insight into the relations upon which that knowledge is

based. This idea of the double office of teaching helps us to see how teaching is a central activity of life. Thereby we can discover that true teaching universalizes itself by making the taught child an intellectually independent citizen in the world of learning. It must be admitted that too many teachers are blind to the relation of teaching the elements of knowledge, to the life work of the child beyond the limits of the school. Failure to appreciate this relation leaves the teacher in that slough from which school work is regarded as merely so much information, rather than training. Keeping this basic idea in mind enables the teacher to free himself from the too common notion that methods of teaching are mere conveniences for doing this thing and that thing in school.

Perhaps you will not mind if to the already long list I add one more qualification that enters into the teacher's make-up. *Professional respect and dignity* belong to the true development of the art of teaching. Too much school keeping is carried on in an apologetic manner. What true minister is there who does not always think his pulpit the best place in the world? What true lawyer can be found who does not feel that the bar is the true arena of life's best possibilities for him? But how many are the teachers who sanctify the desk as their holy of holies? This qualification gives coloring and setting to all the others. It is fundamental in the prerequisites for the development of a system of public schools. The lack of this attitude has made the pedagogue the butt of jest and the object of caricature ever since the early Grecian days.

QUALIFICATIONS—HOW CAN THEY BE ACQUIRED?

For a full answer to this third chief question, there neither remains the time nor the need in this connection. A simple list of educative institutions stretching over the wide ranges between the kindergarten and the university and between general and technical schools might suffice for one who seeks such an enumeration. We now have a perfect hierarchy of institutions which profess to prepare teachers. Another might expect the presentation of certain so-called principles which should be observed in the process which is to enable the future teacher to acquire the qualifications required. Presupposing all these as well within the bounds of your acquaintance, I wish to call attention to a few related points.

The future well trained teacher ought to see to it that he

is well born. We are a little slow in recognizing that there might be such a thing as pedagogical heredity. Other things being equal, I should prefer to have been the son of a teacher. The children of our present generation of teachers ought to provide the next generation with a true teacher caste. One of the serious misfortunes of our schools in the past has been the hereditary illiteracy which has stood behind our teachers' desks. Too frequently it happens that the future teacher has not had a stimulating educational environment during the early years of life. This lack has telling effect upon his professional deficiency.

All men agree that a good general education, secured by *bona fide* graduation from the high school, or the academy, the normal school, the college, or the university, ought to be the basis for the latter acquisitions. To go to school is the preliminary step to keeping school. This first step also means that the future teacher shall acquire real knowledge. It shall be assimilated. It shall be a knowledge of books and of the life lived in the world at large.

This general education should extend as far as possible beyond the grade of instruction which the teacher is to give. The elementary school as such cannot prepare teachers. The teacher must be culturally and pedagogically at home in a field larger than that in which he is going to lead his own pupils. The grading of instruction by schools from the elementary to the higher well makes this provision immediately realizable, and offers a standard by which a teacher's probable possession of fitness can be determined in a preliminary way. This relation between training and teaching explains largely why the normal schools as such have historically trained the teacher supply for the elementary schools and the college and the university the supply for the higher schools.

The necessary ripening of all the foregoing qualifications demands that the teacher carry on actively and systematically a post-school training and study. City superintendents are almost unanimous in their declarations that the after-school training of teachers is the most persistent and emphatic problem which they have to solve in keeping their teaching force up to the standard. This has created many of the post-school adjuncts to the teacher's growth, such as special books and periodicals, extension lectures, institutes, summer schools, educational libraries and the like. To secure healthy professional growth,

there must be constant study about education while practicing its art. A mere repetition of the old topics, bare reviews of textbooks, are not sufficient in this matter. The teacher can come to a full possession of these qualifications (and I mean only those which can be acquired, for some of them are originally possessed) by trying to have the great minds of the race do for them what they are daily trying to do for the pupils under their charge. For this reason we should pattern after the teacher who Platonizes or Spencerizes his educational ideas. Such a teacher is firmly established and carries on his educational art in a fully conscious manner. He is the master of the situation. Different individuals find different plans for the maintenance of this post-school training satisfactory. And, I suppose, each one must find out for himself how he can best keep growing as a teacher after he leaves behind him the beneficent influences of his own teachers.

QUALIFICATIONS—HOW DETERMINED.

Every one believes himself to be better than he is. Every one feels a finer degree of proficiency than his doing warrants us in believing him to possess. Such is the way of human nature. Men have long been seeking an absolutely impersonal and unprejudiced mode of arriving at a judgment of the qualities and attainments of others. Human valuation, however, is always and only a matter of human judgment. How can we make that judging accurate and trustworthy, is, from the teacher's standpoint, the final problem in the organization of an extended system of schools. The valuation of the teacher's fitness is thus a vital part of qualification taken as a whole. These qualifications must be known in terms of degrees. One of the regrettable limitations of such valuation is that it must always be done in terms of quantity, whereas teaching is more a matter of quality.

In private schools the partial and interested judgment of those who chance to be in general authority may suffice to estimate the fitness of the individuals given places on the teaching staff. In a system of public or state schools, including city as well as country, the best means discovered thus far for the evaluation of teachers is the creation of an expert authority which shall be made official. This eliminates the personal, and consequent partial factors in the judgments. The officer, whether the state superintendent, the state board, or the board

of a single school, can discharge this critical function in the freest manner only when maintaining the ideals of fairness expressed in their rules.

Certification of quantitative fitness is the best attainment yet reached in this direction. Submitting teachers to uniform examinations within the field of a given territory or authority, such as the state or the city examination, is as far as our wisdom has carried us, and this obtains in only twelve states in the Union. Such examinations have their limitations. In the main, they test cram and scholarship only. All the qualifications enumerated above cannot be tested by such examination. Character, worth, native ability, common sense, pedagogic instinct, lie beyond the reach of the formal examiner. So intimately, however, are the various qualities of a good teacher interrelated and interdependent that, under our present ideals of living and standards of classing schools, the odds are in favor of the certificated teacher as also possessing the other qualities.

One fundamental mistake in our practical educational thinking and customs is to confuse the certification with the selection of teachers. To select a teacher for a given school or a given grade is vastly different from testifying that a given individual has the fitness of a teacher generally speaking. For the determination of the points at stake in this instance, we must go beyond the formal examination, and seek such means as credentials, personal interviews, the testimony of observers, and the record established during the process of training. Each of these means must be constantly regarded as relative, and as possessing different values. Personal interviews between officers and applicants are most satisfactory. Credentials of all kinds, on the other hand, are typically the most unsatisfactory means of judging the fitness of a given teacher. They are misleading, and are based usually upon a very partial judgment. The testimony of fellow teachers ought to come to be of special value, yielding, as it should, the impartial evidence of experts. At some distant day we may come to have boards of teachers as experts, rather than trustees and school committees, who shall determine in the fairest way the fitness of individual teachers. Until that day is here we must abide the overweening confidence of untrained officials in all grades of our school systems and the nervous desire of teachers to keep getting better and better positions as a mere matter of individ-

ual ambition and professional spoils. Worse than this is the practice, not yet extinct, of sending out licensed teachers who have passed no specific test of their abilities; and still worse is the lack of centralization of certificating authority within a given political division, such as the state.

Finally, education is not a matter of the individual, but of the state, the government. The teacher is a state official. And the state should maintain a conscious participation in the equipment and testing of teachers. It is logical for the state to maintain schools for its future citizens. It is stultifying for the state not to see to it that the teachers in those schools are properly trained. We have long since had state normal and training schools. The last link in the chain is of slow forging. The state scheme of education is complete only when the teacher is by state authority given official cognizance, and that by right of the possession of eminent fitness to return into the schools and perpetuate in the conscious life of children the ideals of civilized government.

In conclusion, we should recognize that in the perpetuation and improvement of our schools the teacher is, after all, only one of the central forces involved. Too frequently it so happens that there is the system *and* the teachers. They are scarcely given a berth in that great organization which we call our city and county schools. The legislator, the trustee, the superintendent, the taxpayer, the parent, even, are often more influential in determining the limits of what our schools are to be than the best trained teachers in the system. In longing for the time when every teacher will approximate our ideals in the matter of qualification, let us strive to give the imperfect teachers of the present a larger consciousness of significance in the world work of education.

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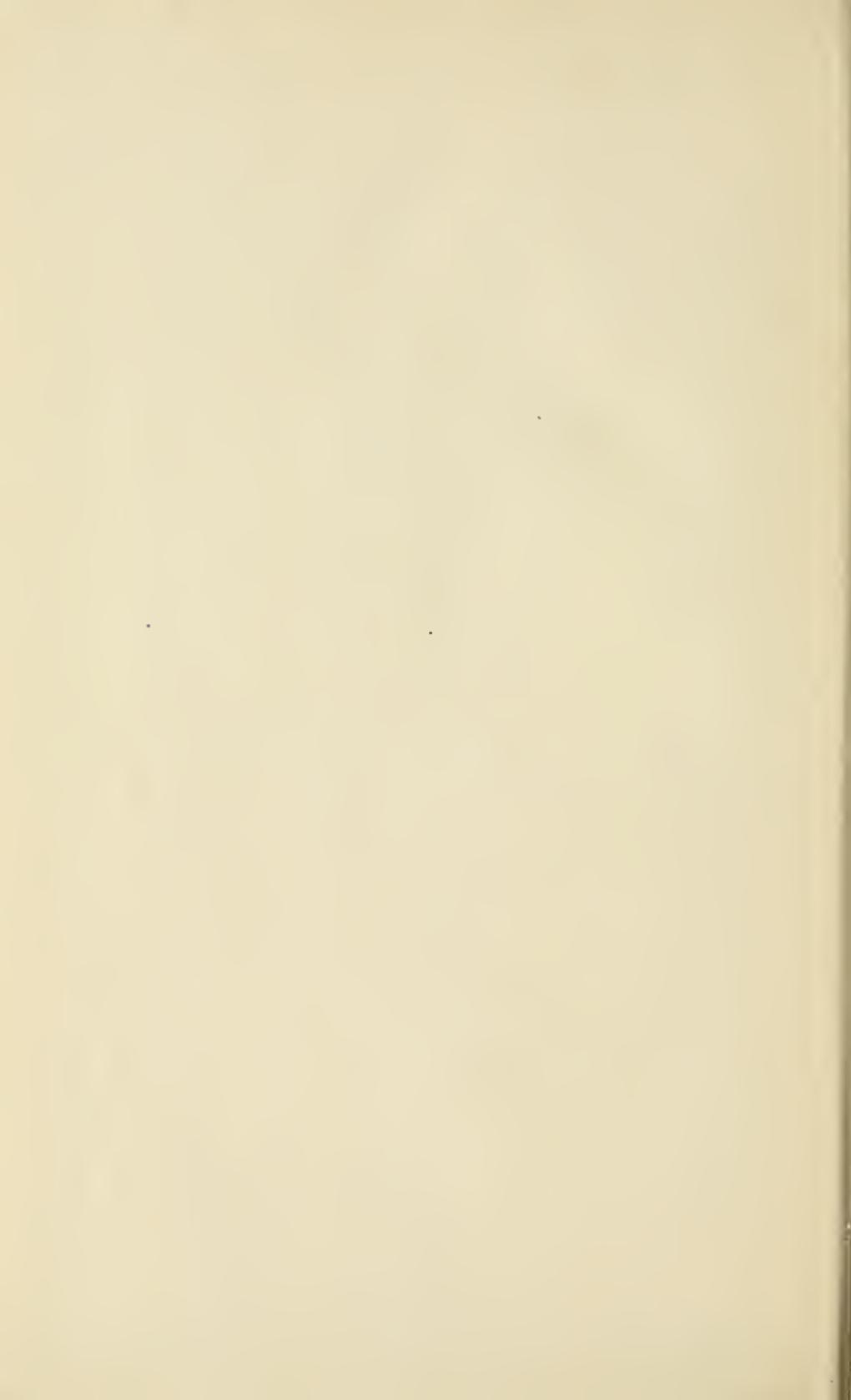
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